

# THE OFFICIAL HANDBOOK

OF

## NEW ZEALAND.

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A COLLECTION OF PAPERS

*BY EXPERIENCED COLONISTS*

ON

THE COLONY AS A WHOLE, AND ON THE SEVERAL  
PROVINCES.

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EDITED BY JULIUS VOGEL, C.M.G.



LONDON:

Printed for the Government of New Zealand, by  
WYMAN & SONS, GREAT QUEEN STREET,  
LINCOLN'S INN FIELDS, W.C.

1875.



LONDON  
WYMAN AND BONS, PRINTERS, ONE AT QUEEN STREET,  
LINCOLN'S INN FIELD, W.C.



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# LIST OF PAPERS AND THEIR AUTHORS.

INTRODUCTION ... ..	The EDITOR ... ..	Page 13
DISCOVERY AND EARLY SETTLEMENT OF THE COLONY ...	The Hon. W. FOX, M.H.R. ...	17
THE NATIVE RACE ... ..	The Hon. Sir D. MOLEMAN, K.C.M.G., M.H.R., Native Minister .. ..	20
PRESENT FORM OF GOVERNMENT ... ..	The Hon. W. GIBBORNE, Com- missioner of Annuities... ..	32
CLIMATE, AND MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES	Dr. HECTOR, Colonial Geologist..	35
ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS ... ..	Mr. TRAVERS ... ..	40
SOME OF THE INSTITUTIONS OF THE COLONY ... ..	Mr. WOODWARD, Public Trustee..	43
NOTES, STATISTICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND INDUSTRIAL .	Ditto ... ..	54
LATEST STATISTICS ... ..	{ Mr. BROWN, Registrar-General . 68 Mr. BAILEY, Secretary to the Treasury ... .. 68 Mr. SEED, Secretary to the Cus- toms ... .. 68	
PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT ... ..	Mr. KNOWLES, Under Secretary for Public Works ... ..	75
IMMIGRATION DEPARTMENT . ... ..	Mr. HAUGHTON, Under Secretary for Immigration ... ..	76
OFFICIAL DIRECTORY ... ..	Mr. COOPER, the Under Secretary	85
OTAGO.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Otago, Mr. MACANDREW, M.H.R.	{ Prepared by Mr. J. McINDON ...	92
CANTERBURY.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Can- terbury, Mr. ROLLSTON, M.H.R.	{ Prepared by Mr. W. M. MASKELL	121
WESTLAND.—Furnished by the Superintendent of West- land, the Hon. J. A. BONAR, M.L.C.	{ Prepared by Mr. J. DRISCOLL ...	157
MARLBOROUGH.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Marlborough, Mr. SNEYMOUR, M.H.R., Chairman of Committees of the House of Representatives.	{ Prepared by Mr. A. MASKELL ...	164
NELSON.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Nelson, Mr. CURTIS, M.H.R.	{ Prepared by Mr. C. ELLIOTT ...	173
WELLINGTON.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Wel- lington, the Hon. W. FITZGERBERT, M.H.R., C.M.G.	{ Prepared by Mr. H. ANDERSON	185
THE MANCHESTER "SPECIAL" SETTLEMENT ... ..	Prepared by Mr. A. F. HALCOMBE	215
HAWKE'S BAY.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Hawke's Bay, Mr. ORMOND, M.H.R.	{ Prepared by Mr. W. W. CARLILE	218
TARANAKI.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Taranaki, Mr. CARRINGTON, M.H.R.	{ Prepared by Mr. C. D. WHITE- COMBE ... ..	227
AUCKLAND.—Furnished by the Superintendent of Auck- land, Mr. WILLIAMSON, M.H.R.	{ Prepared by the Rev. R. KIDD, LL.D., assisted by Mr. T. W. LEYS, ... ..	248





# CONTENTS.

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## DISCOVERY OF NEW ZEALAND ..... pp. 17-26

The early inhabitants—probably Malay emigrants—similarity of their language to that of the Sandwich Islanders—Tasman, in 1642, the first recorded European visitor—he loses a boat's crew in Massacre Bay—he leaves the Islands without landing—Captain Cook the next visitor—he lands in Poverty Bay in 1769—unprepossessing view of the east coast of the Islands—surpassing beauty of portions of the west coast—Mount Egmont and Milford Sound—Ship Cove, Cook's favourite rendezvous—his opinion that if man could live without friends that spot would realize his ideal—Improved appearance of Poverty Bay since Cook first landed there—his unfortunate collision with the Natives—he kills their fighting general—Native account of his landing—his unfavourable impression of the country—his mistaken ideas in treating with the Natives—he alters his opinion regarding the barrenness of the Islands upon better acquaintance—he tries to improve the condition of the Islanders—he introduces the sheep, goat, and pig—the two first fail, but the pig rapidly increases—he plants several vegetables—his last visit in 1777—Rev. Samuel Marsden visits the Islands—the English Church Missionary Society founds a Mission at the Bay of Islands—commercial agencies established—a Resident and a Resident Magistrate appointed—the New Zealand Company commences colonization—the first expedition arrives at Port Nicholson, in Cook Strait—the noble objects of the founders of the New Zealand Company—the Wakefield system—improvement in New Zealand since the first colonist landed—the streets and shops in the towns will now remind the immigrant of the Mother-Country—Improvement in the Maori character through Missionary influence—list of the different settlements.

## THE NATIVE RACE..... pp. 26-31

Interesting character of the Maoris—their brave and warlike nature—their ready acceptance of the arts of civilized life—the agricultural settler now finds eager imitators among the Natives—rapid decrease in numbers of the aborigines—intending emigrants have been deterred from New Zealand by what has been written of former conflicts with the Maoris—that state of things has completely passed away—before the advent of Europeans intertribal wars were incessant—possessed of a certain degree of civilization, yet without a literature, the Maoris devoted their faculties solely to war, planting, and fishing—the dangers the first emigrants to New Zealand had to contend with trivial in comparison with those overcome by the early settlers in America—traditional account among the Maoris of their first arrival at the Islands—evidence in support of the theory of their Malay origin—the introduction of firearms among the Natives—Rev. Mr. Marsden from Sydney, lands in 1814, and commences to preach to the Natives—the spread of Christianity amongst them—Churches and schools built—general sketch of a Maori—the Ngapuhi tribe—the most important one, and the first to acknowledge Her Majesty's supremacy—Tamati Waka Nene, their late principal chief—his loyalty and friendship for the English—the New Zealand Government erect a monument to his memory—instance of the good feeling at present existing between the Natives and the Government—adoption of the European dress among the Maoris—general improvement among them in their manners and customs—their anxiety for the education of their children in the English language—increase in the number of day schools—large tracts of land still held by the Natives as owners and cultivators—favourable reception of the railway system among them.

## THE PRESENT FORM OF GOVERNMENT..... pp. 32-55

The Government of New Zealand similar in practice to that at home—the direction of affairs vested in representatives chosen by the people—qualification of a voter, and of a member of the House of Representatives—power of the Colonial Legislature—right of assent or dissent rests with Her Majesty—rare instances in which assent has been refused—Ministers must possess a majority in the House—division of the Colony into Provinces—the Local Governments—the leading characteristics of the British Constitution preserved in that of New Zealand.

DESCRIPTION OF CLIMATE AND MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL  
RESOURCES OF NEW ZEALAND ..... pp. 35-40

Dimensions of the Islands—their distance from England—their provincial divisions—mountainous character of the country—extinct and active volcanoes—in the North Island the loftiest hills are not always covered with snow, but in the South Island there are many glaciers—though the climate is changeable the variations in the temperature are not great—temperature very similar to that of England—favourable character of the rains—Mineral resources of New Zealand—Gold-mining already largely productive—the Thames Gold mines—the Coal-fields—the districts where Coal is found—Petroleum—its quality equal to that of the United States—bonus offered for its production—large extent of country suitable for tillage or pasture—the different geological formations of New Zealand—by proper selection of soil, all varieties of Cereal and Root Crops may be successfully grown—suitability of the climate for European domestic animals and poultry—the great variety and abundance of fish—great commercial value of the New Zealand forest trees—all the fruits and vegetables of the North Temperate Zone can be profitably cultivated in New Zealand—great improvement of late years in the system of agriculture pursued by the Colonists.

SOME OF THE INSTITUTIONS OF NEW ZEALAND ..... pp. 43-53

Introduction of Savings Banks—and of Post-Office Savings Banks—popularity of the latter—Table of the number of Savings Banks and of Depositors in 1872—favourable comparison with those in England—facilities given to Depositors—yearly progress of Savings Banks from 1867 to 1872—Government Life Insurance in New Zealand—its steady increase—the Post-Office—remarkable increase in its business—average number of letters to each individual—the increase partly due to reduction of rates—number of Post-Offices in the Colony—Mail Services by sea—Money-Orders issued and paid in New Zealand between 1862 and 1872—commission paid upon them—Telegraphy in New Zealand—its rapid extension—the number of interprovincial Letters and Telegrams during 1872—rates of charges for Telegrams—Money-Order Telegrams—their great convenience to the public—Mr. Lemon's successful experiments in double telegraphy—the Land Transfer System—explanation of the measure—its simplicity—the Public Trust Office—its great advantage to trustees—list of the Newspapers published in New Zealand.

NOTES, STATISTICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND INDUSTRIAL ..... pp. 54-68

The Population and its Centesimal Increase from 1851 to 1871—comparison of those born in the Colony to Immigrants—proportion of Males to Females—comparison of the Population in New Zealand with that of England—great improvement in the class of Houses lately built—while lodgment has been well attended to, Education has been still better looked after—Vital Statistics—Criminal Statistics—Convictions in 1851 and 1871—Imports and Exports—Increase in the Exports of Grain, Preserved Meats, and Leather—Shipping Return for 1872—Customs Duty for 1872—proportion per head of Population—the importance which the export of Gold has assumed—the first discovery of Gold in New Zealand—Increase in the export of Wool—important development of industrial pursuits—Land and Building Societies—comparison of the Imports and Exports of Victoria, New Zealand, and New South Wales—Table showing the Exports of Gold, Wool, and Grain from Victoria, New South Wales, and New Zealand—great desire to purchase land—proportion of land held to population—Increase of Stock—promising aspect of the Collieries—Marvellous expansion of the Banking business—assets and liabilities of the New Zealand Banks—reduction in the rate of Discount—vast improvement in the prosperity of the Colony to be expected.

LATEST STATISTICS ..... pp. 68-74

Population of the Colony in 1874—Death-rate in 1874—comparison of the Death-rate in New Zealand with that of the other Australian Colonies—number of acres under Grain crops in 1873—value of Wheat crop in 1873—average yield per acre of the Grain crops—comparison of the average yield of Wheat per acre in New Zealand with that of the United States—amount of land in Pasture—mean temperature for 1872—average rate of Wages in 1873—average prices of Provisions and Live Stock in 1873—the Customs Revenue of 1873—Revenue collected from 1863 to 1873.

THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT ..... pp. 75, 76

Until 1873 Public Works almost at a standstill—passing of the Immigration and Public Works Act—impetus given by that and cognate Acts to Public Works, particularly Road-making—extension of Railways and Water-races for the Gold diggings.



IMMIGRATION ..... pp. 76-85

Aid given by the New Zealand Government to immigrants—establishment of an Immigration Department—satisfactory results from its work—arrangements for the Immigrants on their arrival—number of Immigrants in 1873—their rapid incorporation into the various trades—specimens of Letters from the Immigrants to their friends at home—their satisfactory character.

OFFICIAL DIRECTORY ..... pp. 85-91

Composition of the Legislature—the House of Representatives—Superintendents of Provinces—Civil Establishment—Colonial Secretary's Office—Patent Office—Department of Justice—Crown Law Office—Public Works Office—Colonial Treasurer's Office—Stamp Office—Audit Office—General Post-Office—Telegraph Department—Customs Department—Native and Defence Office—Secretary for Crown Lands Department—Land Transfer Office—Registrar-General's Office—Geological Department—Printing Office—Inspector of Stores' Department—Immigration Department—Government Annuities' Department—Departments in the General Government in the Provinces—Customs—Postmasters—Commissioners of Crown Lands—Armed Constabulary—Provincial Governments.

THE PROVINCES.

THE PROVINCE OF OTAGO ..... pp. 92-121

Early History of the Province—originally settled by a few stock-breeders—establishment of a Mission—first arrival of immigrants in 1848—difference in their reception to that given to immigrants in the present day—the first Church and School opened six months after the arrival of the immigrants—establishment of a Newspaper and Public Library—advancement of the Colony—it is erected into a Province—meeting of the first Provincial Council—unpromising state of affairs at that time—yet the Colonists were determined to succeed, and with perseverance have done so—first result of their exertions, the opening up of the country by means of good roads and bridges—Immigration assisted—establishment of a line of Glasgow ships—bonus offered for a local steamship line—introduction of Banking business—Spiritual affairs have not been wholly neglected in favour of Material ones—erection of the Province of Southland—it is afterwards re-united with Otago—discovery of Gold-fields in 1861—the rush to them—quantity of Gold exported from 1861 to 1874—prices of Provisions and Rates of Wages in 1860, 1860, and 1873—establishment and rapid increase of Building Societies—Public Amusements—trivial character of the Criminal offences—geographical description of the Province—its healthy climate—Increase in the number of towns—Dunedin, in all its arrangements well suited to be the capital—it bids fair to be the "Athens of the South"—Port Chalmers, the principal seaport—it has already a large ship-building trade—Oamaru, the shipping port of the largest pastoral and agricultural districts of the Province—its facilities for sea-bathing—valuable character of its Flour—activity in the Gold-fields—different ways of gold getting—while in some districts the soil is remarkably good, it is everywhere of fair quality, and in its diversified character very similar to that of Great Britain—proofs of its great fertility—Regulations for the sale of Public Lands—their favourable character for intending settlers—owing to there being no Entail Laws the transference of land easily made—opening up of the inland farms by new railways—prices of Produce and Manufactures—Whaling and Sealing likely to become profitable pursuits—prospects of abundant and remunerative labour to the skilful and industrious workman—Sugar-making from Beetroot specially suited to Otago—as is also the growth of Flax and Hemp—valuable quality of the Native Woods—facilities for bringing the sawn timber to the coast—Gold found in almost every district—Coal equally abundant—value of the Building Stone—varied and extensive manufacturing interests of Otago—Flour Mills—preparation of Wool for the weaver—the Mosgiel Woollen Factory produces Cloth of excellent quality—Tanneries—Meat-preserving establishments—Timber, Furniture, and Metal Trades—Certificate of Merit awarded at the Vienna Exhibition for Aërated Waters from Otago—demand for all kinds of labour—rates of Wages—Rations allowed to labourers—large outlay in Public Works—foresight shown in the character of those works—Building Societies have been of great advantage to working men in the Colony—toleration in religious matters—the Presbyterian the only endowed sect—but that is solely, & reason that Otago was founded by Presbyterians—that sect the most numerous, Episcopallians second, and Roman Catholics third—great interest in education shown by the Colonists—list of Educational establishments—Dunedin University—School of Art—base of Athlone, Public Libraries, and Mechanics' Institutes—all Public Schools & Universities—the number of Pupils in 1872—summary of expenditure on Education, 1872—

Hospitals and Charitable Institutions—Friendly Institutions—a great demand for Cottages suitable for a single family—in a very short time a labourer has a good prospect of owning his own house—the attractions which Otago presents remove the objections a man has to leaving his native land—in his new home he has none of the disadvantages and more than the advantages of his former life—useful hints to intending emigrants.

## PROVINCE OF CANTERBURY ..... pp. 121-154

Foundation and design of the Colony—the Canterbury Association—difficulty in acquiring a suitable site—purchase of the land from the Maoris—surveys made and preparations for receiving the new settlers—arrival of the first batch of immigrants from England in December, 1860—it was intended that the colonists should consist entirely of Members of the Established Church—speedy collapse of that project—elevation of the colony into a Province—sterling services of Mr. Godley—progress of the settlement—in eight years the revenue was, per head, seven times as great as that of England—boundaries, area, and physical features—return of the Agricultural produce in 1873—average yield of grain—energy displayed in road-making—powers of the Road Boards to levy rates—owing to the character of the country road-making comparatively easy—the Industries of the Province—the climate of Canterbury similar to that of England—severe droughts and excessive rainfall have occurred but exceptionally—mean temperature—land regulations—adaptation of the country for agriculture—free selection of land at a proper price—right of purchase—periodical land sales—waste lands may be rented for pasturage at low rates—land still available—land reserved for educational purposes—land under cultivation—Small Farms—increase of population desirable, particularly of the class of small farmers—large number of sections waiting the influx of immigrants—average rental per acre of farms—deferred payment system—Industries existing and possible—Wool and Grain the two chief articles of production—Quantities and Value of Exports in 1873—average prices of Grain and Flour from 1869 to 1873—want of skilled labour in the Colony—desirability of offering State assistance in promoting certain industries—Woolen manufactures—Preserved Meat and Fish curing—probability of Silkworm culture—Timber, and Timber planting—though Canterbury is not a well-wooded country some parts are densely wooded—Spread of young plantations—Mineral and other resources—abundance of Coal well adapted for industrial purposes—Clay Iron Ore—Fire Clays—Quartz sands—Limestones—Stone well suited for building purposes—demand for all kinds of labour, but particularly in Agriculture and the Building trades—rates of wages—Provincial Public Works completed and in progress—Railways—many projected public works would be carried out if it were not for the scarcity of labour—advantages offered to immigrants—Canterbury specially suited for small Farmers—owing to the mildness of the climate Stock does not require special care in the winter—introduction of agricultural machinery—prices of Farm Stock—prices of necessaries of life—Religious bodies—almost every form of Church and Sect represented—Educational establishments—great care taken in furtherance of Education—ordinances of the Provincial Councils on the matter—division of the Province into educational districts—no fees charged in the Public Schools, which are partly supported by rates on householders and partly by votes from the Legislature—no compulsory Religious Education—the lands reserved for educational purposes—establishments and endowments for higher Education—foundation of a Public Library at Christchurch—the work of the New Zealand University in Canterbury—administration of the revenue devoted to Education—Hospitals and Charitable Institutions—Christchurch Hospital—Lyttelton Orphanage—the Lunatic Asylum—the modern system of kindness adopted—Canterbury well supplied with Charitable Institutions though there is not the same need for them as in the old country—Immigration Regulations—Hints for Immigrants—care taken by the authorities for the comfort of the Immigrants—Regulations to be observed in the hiring of the Immigrants—Law and Police—Commercial Companies and Associations—Miscellaneous Societies—successful introduction of many English song-birds by the Acclimatization Society—Public amusements—Summary of advantages which Canterbury presents to settlers.

## PROVINCE OF WESTLAND ..... pp. 157-164

Purchased from the Natives in 1861—its geographical boundaries—regulations for the disposal of land—blocks set apart for special settlement—valuable agricultural tracts between the low-lying hills and the main range—Gold and Coal are both found in Westland—abundance of fish in the bays and rivers—luxuriance of the native flax—unlimited supply of wood suitable for cabinet-makers and carpenters—demand for white pine timber for exportation—rates of Wages in Westland—Public Works in progress—prices of the necessaries of life—the religious element—no State aid to religion beyond the reserved lands—means of Education—great uniformity of temperature.

## PROVINCE OF MARLBOROUGH ..... pp. 164-173

Its geographical position—area of the Province—description of its physical geography—originally part of Nelson—made an independent province in 1869—present form

of Government—Population and progress—interest manifested by the Colonists in public affairs—great beauty of the scenery in Marlborough—at one place resembling the lochs of Scotland, at another it will recall a quiet Devonshire valley to remembrance—districts of the Province—Land Laws—average price of Crown Lands—articles of Production—amount of land in cultivation—average yield of the Grain crops—mean temperature of the Colony—value of the Wool exported in 1872—Tallow and Timber two important industries of the Province—excellence of the forest trees—the high position the preparation of flax holds in Marlborough—many industries only require a supply of labour to become profitable—Minerals—Gold, Copper, Coal, Antimony, and Hematite have all been found, though not in abundance—demand for all kinds of labour—rates of Wages—prices of Stock, Provisions, and Clothing—inducement to Immigrants—facilities for Education—the religious denominations in the Colony—advice to Immigrants.

PROVINCE OF NELSON ..... pp. 173-184

Introductory—reasons for founding the settlement—Captain Wakefield selected to lead the expedition—difficulty in choosing a site—Port Cooper first thought of, but relinquished on account of the objections of the Governor of the Colony—Blind Bay chosen as situation for the new Colony—splendid tidal harbour and admirable site for a town—the mistake the New Zealand Company made in its engagements with their first colonists—the misery which ensued on the termination of the engagement—difficulty in obtaining sufficient land—disputes with the Natives—collision with them, and massacre of the whites—this was the first and last collision in the South Island between the Natives and Settlers—general description of Nelson—the Blind Bay district—rich character of its soil—improvement in the circumstances of the settlers—if this district does not equal other agricultural districts in New Zealand, it yet possesses many compensating advantages—richness in minerals—the West Coast districts one vast gold-field—Coal also is found in several places—farming and mining might be combined with advantage—the Amuri district—it is at present a purely pastoral country—gold present everywhere—demand for agricultural labourers—Crown Lands—how disposed of—many opportunities of acquiring Farms at reasonable cost—the chief productions of Nelson—the local Industries—great value of the forest trees—Nelson surpasses all other parts of New Zealand in minerals—prices of stock and provisions—Wages of labourers—unsectarian character of education—success of Building Societies in Nelson—splendid climate enjoyed in Nelson—the Colony offers exceptional advantages to the better class of immigrants.

PROVINCE OF WELLINGTON ..... pp. 185-214

Early history of the Province—originally a dependency of New South Wales—made independent in 1813—general description of the Province—its geographical boundaries—the city of Wellington—ships of any size can always find a secure anchorage in Port Nicholson—progress of the city—Institutions and Societies—the West Coast—description of the districts of Ngahauranga, Porirua, and Horokiwi—the land admirably suited for agricultural purposes—Otaki, a Church of England Missionary Station—the Manawatu district produces the native flax in abundance—tramway through the bush—exportation of railway sleepers—vast quantity of valuable timber—Scandinavian immigrants—the excellent colonists they make—the Emigrant and Colonist's Aid Corporation—rugged grandeur of the scenery of this district—valuable quality of the land when cleared of the trees—new saw-mills about to be erected—the ground is being rapidly cleared of trees, and sown with English grapes—the land chiefly occupied for grazing purposes, for which it is well suited—Crofton, intended for a total township—splendid new iron bridge at Wanganui, the next most important town to Wellington—monument to the memory of the men who fell here in a bloody encounter with the Natives—beauty of the scenery of the Wanganui Valley—high character of the stock bred in the district—fine bracing climate—gold is found in small quantities—the hawthorn hedges remind the wayfarer of Old England—Nukumaru, on the site of a strong pa formerly held by the Natives, is now in a settled and prosperous district—the Confiscated Lands—large sections still waiting the influx of immigrants—pacific attitude of the Natives—general character of the land in Wellington—Conditions of Sale of Public Lands—what the unsold Lands are available for—Lands in private hands for sale—advice to immigrants with small means—chief articles of production and their value—new Industries of the Province—the amount of Timber and the best means of obtaining it—Minerals, as yet, have not been found in any large quantities—considerable extension lately of manufacturing industries—handy men of almost any trade, sure of plenty of occupation—rates of Wages—abundant dietary of the agricultural labourer—Public Works in progress—advantages offered in this Province to agricultural labourers—comparison of their condition in Wellington to their former lot in England—prices of Farm Stock and of Provisions—Ecclesiastical organizations—there are already fifteen Churches and Chapels in the City of Wellington—all religious denominations are represented in the Province—Education—the schools are partly free, and are wholly unsectarian—there are also some good private schools—Charitable Institutions—House Rent in towns—cost of erecting Cottages in the country—Building Societies—their successful operations.



## THE MANCHESTER "SPECIAL" SETTLEMENT ..... pp. 215-217

Founded by the Emigrant and Colonist's Aid Corporation—arrival from England of the first batch of immigrants—prospect of a highly remunerative result, both for the immigrant and for the Corporation.

## PROVINCE OF HAWKE'S BAY ..... pp. 218-227

Discovered by Captain Cook in 1769—first business transaction between him and the Natives—sharp practice on the part of the latter—Cape Kidnappers—origin of its name—after Captain Cook's time, Hawke's Bay but rarely visited by white men—uncertainty as to when the settlement was founded—building of Napier—erection of the colony into a Province—early troubles with the Maoris—general description of the Province—prepossessing appearance of Napier—fertility of the Ahuriri Plains—onset with which pure water can be obtained by means of Artesian wells—large forests of valuable timber trees—Hawke's Bay peculiarly adapted for sheep breeding—miscellaneous industries of the Province—rates of Wages—Public Works in progress—prices of Provisions—regulations for the purchase of Land—Farms can be had on lease—means of Education—introduction of English trees, birds, and fish—Land and Building Societies.

## PROVINCE OF TARANAKI ..... pp. 227-243

Early history of the Province—origin of its name—warlike nature of its early inhabitants—visited by Captain Cook who named Mount Egmont—stranding of the *Harriet*—ill-treatment of the crew—strange appropriation by the Natives of a portion of the cargo—formation of the Plymouth Company—purchase of the land and foundation of the settlement—arrival of the first immigrants—their extremely high moral character—miserable condition of the Natives at that time—further purchase of the land from the Waikato tribe—manumission of the aboriginal inhabitants who proceed to claim all the lands—their claim allowed by Governor Fitzroy—great fertility of the soil—general description of the Province—geologically it is a volcanic country—area of the Province—its political divisions—New Plymouth, the capital—revenue derived from the sale of land—present and possible industries—as usual in New Zealand the forest trees are extremely valuable—building stone and coal are both found, besides several minerals—rates of Wages and prices of Provisions—the religious element—means of Education—in certain cases education is free—poverty and want all but unknown in Taranaki—rents of Houses—hints to immigrants.

## PROVINCE OF AUCKLAND ..... pp. 243-263

The history of the Province almost identical with that of New Zealand—description of the Province—its climate very similar to that of Greece—remarkable healthiness of the Colony—natural products—acclimatization of English flowers—beauty of the scenery—great commercial value of the Kauri pine—absence of noxious reptiles—abundance of wild pigs and game birds—Mineral resources—amount of Gold exported up to December, 1878—Coal and Iron-sand plentiful—Copper, Silver, and Lead are also found—area of Land in the Province—stock-raising the principal occupation of the colonists—the land specially suitable for that pursuit—the natural phenomena of the Lake Districts—the geysers—the Gold-fields of the Coromandel Peninsula—their exceeding productiveness—large dividends paid to the shareholders—demand for further mining labour—Population of the principal towns—the water facilities of Auckland—its shipping trade is already very large—Industrial pursuits—the Timber trade—Ship-building—Kauri Gum, what it is and where found—preparation of the native Flax—Rope-making—cordage has been made equal to that from Manila hemp—unlimited supply of materials for rope-making—Miscellaneous Industries—Industries not yet established which are likely to be profitable—such as Woollen-mills, Vineyards, Tobacco, and Beetroot Sugar—Farmers and agricultural labourers in great demand in Auckland—Female servants cannot fail to succeed there—owing to the cheapness of living, persons with small permanent incomes would do well to go there—the Land Laws—facility in acquiring land under "The Homestead Act"—how to obtain a free grant of land—Government Land Sales—Improved Farms may be purchased at moderate prices—rate of Wages—cost of Provisions—Religious matters—the Rev. Samuel Marsden founds a Church of England Mission here in 1809—his high estimate of the Maoris—favour accorded to the missionaries by the Maori chiefs—establishment of a Wesleyan Mission—it is badly treated by the Ngatipo tribe—Bishop de Pompallier founds a Roman Catholic Mission in 1837—means of Education in Auckland—Charitable Institutions—House rent and the cost of erecting Cottages—prices of Farm Stock and Agricultural Implements—advice to intending Emigrants.

# LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

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## MAPS.

THE SOUTH ISLAND OF NEW ZEALAND .....	Page 92
THE NORTH ISLAND OF NEW ZEALAND.....	186

## PHOTOGRAPHS.

MARTIN VALLEY, NELSON .....	36
DUNEDIN .....	92
LYTTELTON .....	152
PIOTON .....	165
WELLINGTON .....	210
NAPIER .....	220
PARNELL .....	249

## WOOD ENGRAVINGS.

MOUNT EGMONT AND RANGES, TARANAKI .....	19
SKETCH OF A MAORI CHIEF.....	30
GOVERNMENT HOUSE, WELLINGTON.....	33
AGRICULTURAL DISTRICT, SHAG VALLEY, OTAGO .....	41
SUPREME COURT, AUCKLAND .....	51
COURT HOUSE, OAMARU, OTAGO .....	54
GOLD QUARTZ MINING .....	61
PANORAMA OF THE CITY OF WELLINGTON .....	84
DUNEDIN, FROM THE BAY .....	97
PORT CHALMERS .....	110
CHRISTCHURCH .....	124
TIMARU .....	139
SKELETON OF THE EXTINCT MOA .....	145
HOKITIKA RIVER, FROM THE TOWN OF HOKITIKA .....	156
FRANCIS JOSEPH GLACIER. From a Sketch by the Hon. W. Fox.....	161
PHORMIUM TENAX, OR NEW ZEALAND FLAX. From a Photograph by Mr. MUNDY	169
PANORAMA OF THE CITY OF NELSON .....	173
RIVER GREY, FROM GREYMOUTH .....	179
WANGANUI BRIDGE .....	197
WAIKARARAPA BRIDGE .....	201
SUBURBS OF NAPIER .....	221
PANORAMA OF NEW PLYMOUTH .....	227
A CREEK IN NEW ZEALAND.....	231
AUCKLAND .....	242
GOVERNOR'S HOUSE, AUCKLAND .....	256





# INTRODUCTION.

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IN order that this Handbook may be fairly estimated, it is necessary to explain the manner of its preparation. Most of the works about New Zealand have been written either by those who have made only a short visit to the Colony, or who, possessing an acquaintance with some particular part or parts of the two Islands, have been still unable, however much inclined, to do justice to the several Provinces into which New Zealand is divided.

The colonization of New Zealand has been conducted by several communities, which, as organized and initiated, were perfectly distinct in their character, their objects, the bonds that held them together, and their plans of operation. As might be expected, the isolation in which these communities dwelt assisted for some time to intensify the distinctness of their characteristics. Of late years, the isolation has yielded to the intercourse consequent upon larger facilities of communication. At first, some of the Provinces occasionally heard news of each other more rapidly from their communications with Australia than from their direct communications. But for many years past steamers have abounded on the coast, and there has been much intercommunication. The consequences are that the Provinces know more of each other; they have in many cases exchanged settlers and residents; and the old exclusiveness has assumed rather a character of ambitious competition for pre-eminence in the race for wealth and material advancement. The railways and roads which are being constructed will much increase the intercommunication between different parts of the Colony, and will tend to further reduce the Provincial jealousy that still survives. But not for a long time to come, if ever, will the characters the settlements received from their early founders be entirely obliterated.

The object of this Handbook is to give to those who may think of making the Colony their home or the theatre of business operations, an idea of New Zealand from a New Zealand point of view. To do this, it was necessary to recognize the distinctions which have been already explained. No one man in New Zealand could faithfully interpret the local views of the various Provinces. It was, therefore, determined that the book should consist of a number of papers, some devoted to the Colony as a whole, but most of them independent accounts of separate localities. In editing these papers, the difficulty arose of deciding whether to permit a certain amount of overlapping of narrative, some little discrepancy in statement of facts, and yet larger difference in elaboration of views, or to so tone down the papers as really to frustrate the purpose which led to their separate preparation. The decision was in favour of preserving the distinctness of the papers, even at the risk of affording grounds for carping criticism. In some of the papers, extravagant exhibitions of local favouritism have been much toned down, but enough has been left to supply clear evidence to the reader that there is hardly a Province in New Zealand, the residents in which do not consider it specially favoured in some respects beyond all the other Provinces. To ignore this feeling—the legitimate and in some respects valuable outcome of the original system of settlement—would be to fail to convey a homely view of New Zealand.

It must be clearly understood that when, directly or by implication, comparisons are instituted between different Provinces, they are the writer's, not the editor's. Not that it should be supposed the Provinces of the Colony are uniform in their conditions. A long line in the ocean, trending nearly north and south, New Zealand, for its area, extends over many degrees of latitude, and possesses much variety of climate. There is also wide variety in natural and physical features, and in resources, whether mineral or agricultural. In "specialities," therefore, there is no doubt much difference in the capabilities of the Provinces, and perhaps, to some extent, it would be well if this were more generally admitted, and efforts were made to develop in each Province its own proper capabilities. Success naturally induces imitation, and hence, perhaps, the exist-

ing industries may have become too deeply grooved. The fact that sheep and wheat have been so successful in the South, does not make it a necessary consequence that they are the most suitable productions for the North. Amongst the benefits an influx of population will bestow on the Colony, may be anticipated that of an impetus being given to new industries, suitable to the circumstances of the several parts of the Colony, but which in the early days were overlooked.

Those who incline to make New Zealand their home should not form extravagant anticipations of it. It is not paved with gold, nor is wealth to be gained without industry. Our countrymen of the United Kingdom may form an idea of it if they suppose it to be a very thinly-peopled country, with numerous points in common with the Islands of Great Britain, but possessing, on the whole, a much better climate, free from pauperism, more free from prejudices of class, and, therefore, opening to the industry and ability of those who have not the adventitious aid of family connections to help them, a better road to advancement; a country in which there is a great variety of natural resources, and which, therefore, appeals to persons of much variety of taste; a country which may boast of some of the most magnificent scenery in the world; a country in which the natural wonders of many parts of the globe are congregated. Norway, for example, would not be ashamed of the firds of the West Coast of the Middle Island: the glaciers there would also respectably contrast with glaciers elsewhere. The hot springs of the Lake district are more marvellous than the geysers of Iceland. It is a country with an immense extent of seaboard compared with its area, with splendid harbours, many, if not extensive, rivers, fine agricultural land, magnificent forests, and lastly, one which, besides possessing in abundance the key to manufacturing wealth — coal — has alluvial and quartz gold deposits, in working which, those whose tastes incline them to mining may always find a livelihood, with the possibility of attaining large wealth by a lucky discovery. Though sparingly populated, it is not denied the benefits which science has opened to modern civilization. The telegraph penetrates its length and breadth, and railways are being constructed throughout it. In course of time, it must carry a population of millions, and every acre of available land must become valuable. Yet with the knowledge that this must be, there is so little capital, not required for industrial uses, that millions of acres of land are open to purchase at prices which, a generation hence, will probably represent their yearly rent. There are not many instances of vast accumulations of wealth in individual hands. It would be as difficult to find a millionaire in New Zealand, as it would be in England to find a labourer enjoying anything approaching the advantages enjoyed by the New Zealand labourer. Money is more widely distributed. The small tradesman, the mechanic, or labourer, in short, any one who is fitted to make New Zealand his home, and who is not incapacitated by ill health, may, with ordinary frugality and industry, and without denying himself a fair share of worldly enjoyment, save money, and become, if his ambition point in that direction, a proprietor of acres.

New Zealand has, apparently, when tested by its population, a heavy public debt; but when tried by the only true test, the burden which the debt bears to the earnings of the people, it compares favourably with older and more settled countries, although the public debt of the Colony includes works, such as railways, water-works, roads, and bridges, which in other countries are either the results of joint-stock enterprise, or of local taxation, or of loans not included in the general indebtedness. Again, in the Colony, against the public debt there is to be placed an immense and valuable estate in the land which still belongs to the Crown. The charge per head upon the population, on account of New Zealand's public debt, taken as a whole, was some months since computed to be £1. 17s. 4d. per annum. That total was thus composed: — On account of Colonial indebtedness, exclusive of Public Works and Provincial, 18s. per head; on account of Public Works, 6s. 8d.; on account of Provincial Loans, 12s. 8d.; making together £1. 17s. 4d. But taking the test of the average earnings of the population, the charge per head on account of New Zealand's total indebtedness, is computed to be 2·4 per cent. on the average earnings, while in the United Kingdom it has been computed at 2·8, and in the United States, at 2·7 per cent. In the former, the cost of railways, and of other public works which are here regarded as "Colonial," is not included; in the latter, the State debts are included. Exclusive of Provincial indebtedness, the Colonial debt, including that for railways and some other public works, is computed to be equal to an annual charge per head of about 1·6 per cent. on the average earnings of the population. The Provincial indebtedness is secured on the Crown lands, and these, at a moderate estimate,



are worth at least four times the amount of the Provincial debts. It is to be remembered that fresh arrivals, from the increased wants they create and work they supply, not only participate in the average of earnings, but on the whole add to the average, whilst they diminish the amount per head of the indebtedness of the country. So that what is going on in New Zealand, and what will continue to go on until the Colony is reasonably peopled, is a tendency to increase the average earnings and to diminish the average burden of the public debt, or if that debt is being added to, the average burden on the profits of the people may still remain unincreased.

Whilst these papers were in course of preparation, the Census was being taken. It has not been found possible to incorporate many of the results with the various statistics throughout the pages of the book; but a separate paper is presented, showing as much of the information obtained from the Census as at the latest moment is procurable. Some interesting revenue returns are also given. It will be observed that the two great branches of revenue, the Colonial and Provincial, are alike increasing in a remarkable manner.

In the pages of the Handbook, frequent reference is made to the various land laws in force in the Colony. The natural disadvantage of many varieties of land laws is, to some extent, compensated by the larger range of choice of conditions presented to the intending settler. Without giving an epitome of the different systems, it may be observed that the object of them all is to promote settlement, their framers holding, in many cases, distinct views as to the circumstances and conditions most likely to promote that object. It is important to remember this, because from it follows the fact that the tendency of all amendments in the land laws, or modifications in the mode of applying them, is in the direction of making the land more available for settlement. For example, an arrangement has just been made between the General Government and the Provincial Government of Wellington, whereby the latter agrees to four blocks, of not less than 20,000 acres each, being selected out of the best land in the Province, to be surveyed into sections of from 50 to 500 acres each. It is agreed that every other section of these shall be open to the free selection of any purchaser, at prices to be fixed in advance: the purchase-money to be paid in instalments, extending over five years. Under this plan, any industrious person, possessed of good health may become a freeholder. Some of the differences in the land laws arise only partly through opposite opinions as to what is most likely to promote settlement, and are principally to be set down to the different nature of the lands and the circumstances of the Provinces. In Otago, for instance, where the desire is to make the land laws in the highest degree liberal, a new system is being adopted, of deferred payments, with conditions of cultivation. In Canterbury, one simple plan has been adopted from the first. Any one may select from the Crown lands throughout the Province, at the price of £2 an acre, cash, without conditions of cultivation and residence. In Auckland, some extent of land is given away in the shape of free grants of forty acres to persons who fulfil the prescribed conditions of cultivation and residence. Other Provinces have modifications or varieties of these several plans; in all, the desire is to see the land cultivated, and from that desire will probably, sooner or later, arise a nearer approach to uniformity of system. The Assembly last year passed an Act, under the provisions of which every person approved by the Agent-General, who pays his own passage to the Colony, may claim a free grant of land to the value of £20 for himself and for any adult member of his family, whose passage is also paid. Two children are reckoned as an adult. The Crown grant of the land is to be conditional on occupation and use, but the immigrant is to be allowed to remain five years in the Colony before selecting his land, and he may select it in any part of the Colony where land is open for sale.

Let it not be thought that for all persons New Zealand is a suitable home. It is a land of plenty to the colonist who can do work such as the Colony requires, or who can employ others to do such work for him. But it is no suitable home for those who cannot work or cannot employ workers. The mere ability to read and write is no sufficient justification for a voyage to New Zealand. Above all, let those be warned to stay away who think the Colony a suitable place to repent of evil habits. The ne'er-do-well had better continue to sponge on his relations in Great Britain, than to hope he will find sympathy for his failings and weaknesses in a land of strangers: strangers, moreover, who are quite sufficiently impressed with the active and hard realities of life, and who, being the architects of their own fortunes, have no sympathy to throw away on those who are deficient in self-reliance. This warning is not altogether

uncalled for. It is astonishing how many people are sent to the colonies to relieve their friends of their presence, no heed, apparently, being given to the fact that these countries are not at all deficient in temptations to evil habits, and that those who are inclined to such habits had much better stay away. An instance not long since came under the writer's notice. A wealthy settler received a letter from an English gentleman of whom he had not before heard. The writer explained that his acquaintance with a mutual friend induced him to write and to introduce his son, the bearer, who was visiting New Zealand for the purpose of settling there. He was sorry to say his son had not been successful at home in anything he had tried. He had had to give up the army, and was so very weak and easily persuaded, that it was hopeless to put him to anything in England. The writer would, he said, be content if the gentleman he was writing to would give his son a home and £100 a year till he could do something better. The young gentleman who presented this letter at once intimated that a loan of £10 would be acceptable. He received it. The day was Saturday: on the Monday following, he called again for a further loan—the first £10 was gone. He was naturally denied, and the next intelligence of the young hopeful our settler received, was in order for the payment of a considerable debt. Such prodigals are not suited to the Colony. It would be better to kill the fattened calf on their account, without any intervening absence. Young women of good character, and who are not disinclined to domestic service, need not hesitate to venture to New Zealand. The demand for servants is such that employers are only too glad to obtain respectable young women, and to teach them in part their duties. That demand—for the information of the unmarried daughters of Great Britain, we may observe—is occasioned by the difficulty that exists in keeping servants for any length of time, on account of the readiness with which they are able to get married. The single young man who comes to New Zealand is not long in finding the means to comfortably furnish a house; and, naturally, he thinks that she who shows herself well versed in discharging domestic duties, will be able to make his home a happy one. A short courtship, a brief notice to her employer, and another home is set up in New Zealand; another notice appears in the local papers, "Wanted, a nurse," or housemaid, cook, or general servant, as the case may be. This is all very homely; but the romance of the Colonies is of a very domestic nature—"to make homes" is another mode of expressing "to colonize."

It would not be doing justice to New Zealand to avoid mentioning one other circumstance, though to do so might lead to the appearance of a desire to praise the Colony. All, however, who have a knowledge of New Zealand will corroborate the statement that this Colony gains a singular hold upon those who for any time have resided in it. There are very many persons who have realized a competency, who have nothing to bind them to the Colony, and who yet prefer remaining in New Zealand to living elsewhere. The pleasures and advantages the Old World offers, appear to weigh as nothing with them, when compared with the enjoyments and freedom of life in New Zealand. The climate and the scenery, together with the intimacies which rapidly spring up in colonial life, are no doubt the reasons for this strong liking. For health-restoring properties, the climate of New Zealand is wonderful. There are numbers of persons enjoying good health in the Colony who years ago left England supposed to be hopelessly afflicted with lung disease, their only hope—that in New Zealand the end might be a little longer deferred. This is not written in selfishness, for it is by no means desired to make New Zealand a sanitarium. But this Handbook is not prepared with a view to its consequences. The design, as has been said, is to give a New Zealand view of New Zealand; and it is hoped that, in its pages, the merits and demerits of the Colony will alike be apparent. The order in which the Provinces are dealt with is from south to north, and quite independent of their relative size and importance.

The Editor expresses his acknowledgments for the assistance he has received, in revising the papers, from Mr. E. Fox.

WELLINGTON, NEW ZEALAND, May, 1874.



# THE OFFICIAL HANDBOOK OF NEW ZEALAND.

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## DISCOVERY OF NEW ZEALAND :

ITS THEN CONDITION, EARLY SETTLEMENT, AND PROGRESS TO DATE OF  
REGULAR COLONIZATION, 1840.

NEW ZEALAND appears to have been discovered and first peopled by the Maori race, a remnant of which still inhabits parts of the Islands. At what time the discovery was made, or from what place the discoverers came, are matters which are lost in the obscurity which envelopes the history of a people without letters. Little more can now be gathered from their traditions than that they were immigrants, not indigenous; and that when they came, there were probably no other inhabitants of the country. Similarity of language indicates a northern origin, probably Malay, and proves that they advanced to New Zealand through various groups of the Pacific Islands, in which they left deposits of the same race, who to this day speak the same, or nearly the same, tongue. When Cook first visited New Zealand, he availed himself of the assistance of a native from Tahiti, whose language proved to be almost identical with that of the New Zealanders, and through the medium of whose interpretation a large amount of information respecting the country and its inhabitants was obtained, which could not have been had without it.

The first European who made the existence of New Zealand known to the civilized world, and who gave it the name it bears, was Tasman, the Dutch navigator, who visited it in 1642. Claims to earlier discovery by other European explorers have been raised, but they are unsupported by any sufficient evidence. Tasman did not land on any part of the islands, but, having had a boat's crew cut off by the natives in the bay now known as Massacre Bay, he contented himself by sailing along the western coast of the North Island, and quitted its shores without taking possession

of the country in the name of the Government he served; a formality which, according to the law of nations (which regards the occupation of savages as a thing of small account), would have entitled the Dutch to call New Zealand theirs—at least so far as to exclude other civilized nations from colonizing it, and conferring on themselves the right to do so. From the date of Tasman's flying visit to 1769, no stranger is known to have visited the islands. In the latter year Captain Cook reached them, in the course of the first of those voyages of great enterprise which have made his name illustrious.

Cook was a self-made man. He began life as an apprentice on board a Whitby collier engaged in the coasting and Baltic trades—the roughest experience that could be had of the business of the sea, but an excellent school to make a practical seaman. But to be a mere practical seaman did not content Cook. After becoming a mate in the merchant service, he entered the Royal navy, and by strenuous perseverance and diligent use of leisure hours, he became an excellent mathematician and astronomer, and a skilful nautical surveyor. He had some experience of war in fighting against the French in Canada, and he executed some useful surveys on the coasts and rivers of that country; and when it was determined by King George III. to prosecute new voyages of discovery into the little-explored southern seas, Cook's ability was recognized, and, with the rank of lieutenant in the navy conferred upon him, he was appointed to conduct the expedition.

The first of Cook's voyages of discovery began in August, 1768, when he was sent to Tahiti to observe the transit of Venus, an astronomical event of great importance,

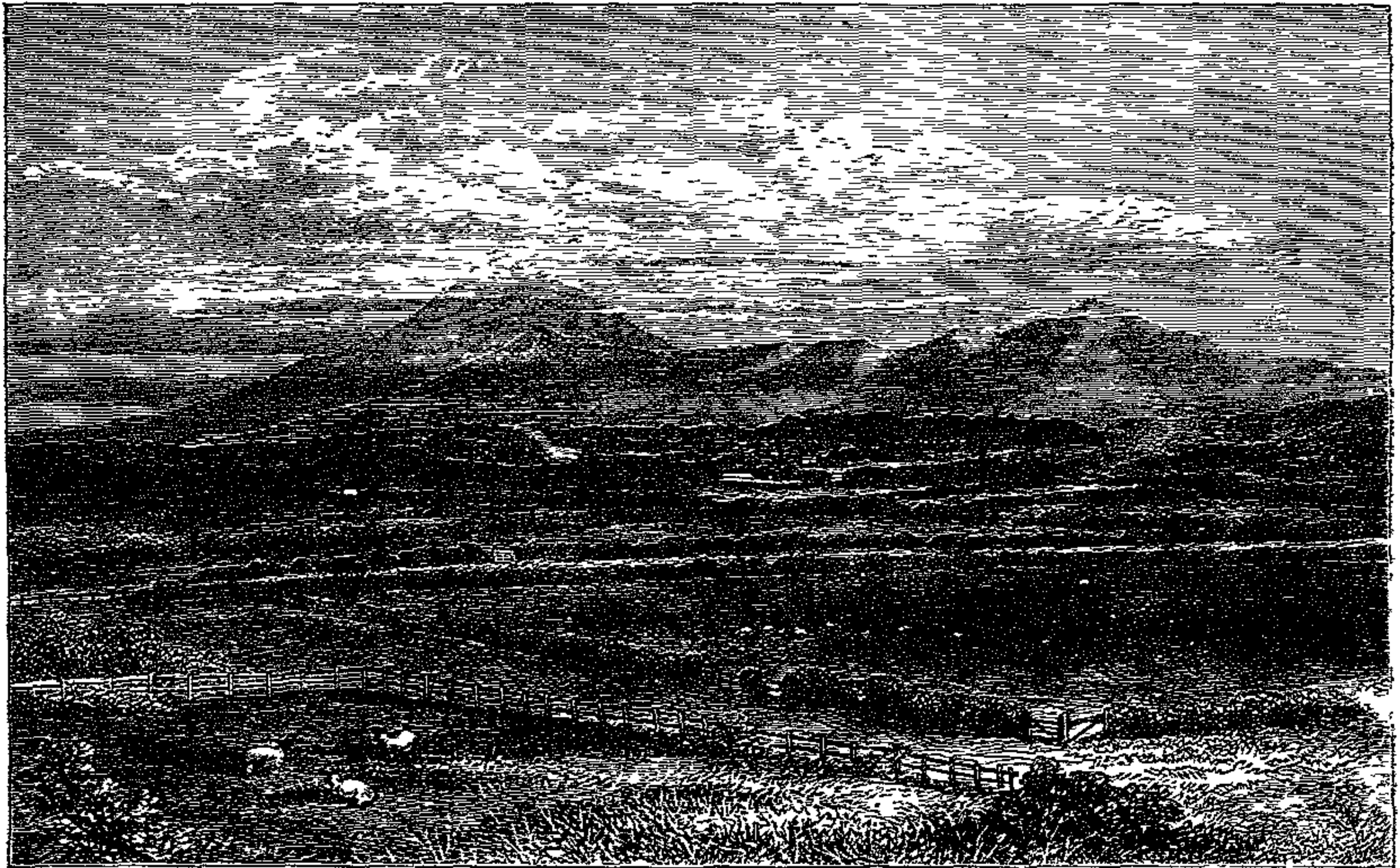
which required considerable skill and knowledge to note in an intelligent manner. Having performed this duty, his instructions directed him to visit New Zealand, of which nothing more was known than the little that Tasman had told. After a run of eighty-six days from Tahiti, having touched at some other places, he sighted the coast of New Zealand on the 6th of October, 1769. On the 8th he landed in Poverty Bay, on the east coast of the North Island. It is interesting to those now in the colony, or intending to go there, to know what appearance it presented at the time of Cook's arrival. The aspect of most countries from the sea is less prepossessing than their internal features, and this holds good of the greater part of the east coast of both islands of New Zealand. Portions of the west coast of both, however, present views, from the deck of a ship, unsurpassed in any part of the world. For instance, the hundred miles of Southern Alps, whose snowy peaks pierce the sky at a height of nearly 14,000 feet, their sides clothed with dense evergreen forests, in the very bosom of which lie gigantic glaciers, and their base chafed by the resounding surf of the Pacific Ocean. Then there is the stately cone of Mount Egmont, rising near 10,000 feet, in solitary grandeur, from an undulating wooded plateau almost on the margin of the sea. There are also the stupendous precipices of Milford Sound shooting up sheer many hundreds of feet from an almost fathomless depth of ocean, frowned down upon by the snowy summits of the great Alpine range, while cascades of nearly 1,000 feet fall headlong down their sides. These great features remain to this day as they were at the period of Cook's arrival. Nor has the general character of the country, as a whole, been much changed, in its principal features by the progress of colonization. More of it, no doubt, was then in a state of nature; but much of it is so still. Dense forests, exhibiting new and beautiful forms of vegetation, including the gigantic scarlet flowering myrtle (one of the largest forest trees), the graceful tree-fern, and the bright eastern-like Nikau palm, clothed the mountain slopes and much of the undulating lower country. Elsewhere, vast plains of brown fern, or coarse yellow and hay-coloured grasses, or big swamps bearing the farinaceous rupo and the native flax of the country, the well-known *Phormium* of commerce. Then there was the feature with which the voyagers, from their long visits to Queen Charlotte's Sound, would be so familiar,—the little retiring cove, with its sandy or pebbly beach, its few acres of level

green, backed up by steep hills covered with lofty trees, and an underbrush of velvety shrubs, arranged by the hand of Nature far more tastefully than could have been done by the Loudons or Paxtons of the civilized world. Ship Cove, Cook's favourite rendezvous, was one of these beautiful nooks—a spot where, as he observed, if a man could live without friends, he might make a model home of perfect isolated happiness. To every Englishman, whose colonizing taste has been inspired by his boyish reading of Robinson Crusoe—(and with how many is not this the case?)—these charming little bays seem to realize the exact idea of his imagination; and if he could be content to live as Robinson lived, with his little flock of goats, his parrot, and his faithful dog, "the world forgetting, by the world forgot," these are the spots where he would be provided with the surroundings necessary to carry out the idea, and give him all that his fancy could paint or his heart could wish. While there are large tracts of country in New Zealand which present no pleasant feature except to the calculating mind of the sheep-farmer or the agriculturist, there are others, and they are neither few nor far between, such as those to which we have alluded, which combine all the grandeur and beauty that can delight the eye of the most fastidious lover of nature, the painter, or the poet. And much of this must have lain under Cook's eye during his visits to the country.

The spot where Cook landed, however, though by no means repulsive, was not one of the most inviting portions of this country to look at. Hills of no great height or grandeur, backing a moderate-sized flat at the head of a bay, whose horns were two not very commanding white cliffs, did not afford a prospect either very imposing or very inviting. At the present time it is the site of a very prosperous and flourishing European settlement; but at the time of Cook's visit it was all barren and unoccupied, except by a few Natives of unfriendly character. No fields of waving corn, no cattle luxuriating on meadows of the now celebrated Poverty Bay rye-grass, drowsily chewing the cud, or waiting with distended udders for the milking-pail; no hamlet, no church spire, no cottages with children running in and out, no sign of civilization, material plenty, or social life. It must have required an eye of faith to see it as it now is, and to believe that in just one hundred years it would exhibit the picture which now it does.

The circumstances of Cook's first landing were unfortunate. "We landed," he says,





MCUNT EGMONT AND RANGES, TARANAKI.





"abreast of the ship, on the east side of the river, which was here about forty yards broad; but seeing some Natives on the west side, with whom I wished to speak, and finding the river not fordable, I ordered the yawl to carry us over, and left the pinnace at the entrance. When we came near the place where the people were assembled, they all ran away; however, we landed, and, leaving some boys to take care of the yawl, we walked up to some huts, which were about 200 or 300 yards from the waterside. When we had got some distance from the boat, four men, armed with long lances, rushed out of the woods, and, running up to attack the boat, would certainly have cut her off if the people in the pinnace had not discovered them, and called to the boys to drop down the stream. The boys instantly obeyed, but being closely pursued, the coxswain of the pinnace, who had charge of the boats, fired a musket over their heads. At this they stopped and looked round them, but in a few minutes renewed the pursuit, brandishing their lances in a threatening manner. The coxswain then fired a second musket over their heads, but of this they took no notice, and, one of them taking up his spear to dart it at the boat, another piece was fired, which shot him dead. When he fell, the other three stood motionless, as if petrified with astonishment. As soon as they recovered they went back, dragging the dead body, which, however, they soon left that it might not encumber their flight. At the report of the musket we drew together, having straggled to a little distance from each other, and made the best of our way back to the boat, and, crossing the river, we soon saw the Native lying dead on the ground."

The account which the Natives themselves gave of their impressions on Cook's arrival is recorded by Mr. Polack, who had it from the mouths of their children in 1836. "They took the ship at first for a gigantic bird, and were struck with the beauty and size of its wings, as they supposed the sails to be. But on seeing a smaller bird, unfledged, descending into the water, and a number of parti-coloured beings, apparently in human shape, the bird was regarded as a housful of divinities. Nothing could exceed their astonishment. The sudden death of their chief (it proved to be their great fighting general) was regarded as a thunderbolt of these new gods, and the noise made by the muskets was represented as thunder. To revenge themselves was the dearest wish of the tribe, but how to accomplish it with divinities who could kill them at a distance, was difficult to deter-

mine. Many of them observed that they felt themselves ill by being only looked upon by these atua (gods), and it was therefore agreed that, as the new comers could bewitch with a look, the sooner their society was dismissed, the better for the general welfare."

It is not much to be wondered at that any further intercourse with the Natives at this point should become impossible. Other collisions, attended with similar fatal results, followed on succeeding days, and on the 11th (three days after his first landing), Cook weighed anchor and stood away from "this unfortunate and inhospitable place," as he calls it, and on which he bestowed the name of Poverty Bay, "as it did not afford a single article they wanted, except a little firewood." Had his subsequent experiences been as unpropitious, he would probably not have reported to his countrymen at home so favourably of New Zealand.

There is no doubt that the problem of initiating intercourse with a people of the temper exhibited by the Maoris, and so little civilized as they were, was one of difficult solution. As strangers had never but once before visited the country, and that in the very hasty manner in which Tasman came and departed, and at a place remote from that at which Cook arrived, the Maoris could hardly be expected to appreciate the relations which ought to exist between themselves and their visitors. It must have been a new sensation to most of them, to know that there were such things as strangers; still more, strangers resembling themselves so little and differing of themselves so much. If the inhabitants from the "black country" of Staffordshire, in 1870, exhibited their appreciation of the stranger by "heaving a brick" at him, it is not surprising that the first impulse of the Maoris of Poverty Bay should be to hurl their spears at the "coming man." Cook's idea of meeting such a hostile greeting was, as he tells us, first by the use of firearms to convince the savage of the superior power of the white man, and then to conciliate him by kindness and liberal dealing. Whether any other method were possible, he does not seem to have been allowed by the Natives time to consider; the first collision being, in a manner, forced upon him within five minutes of his arrival, though the challenge was perhaps too hastily accepted.

He soon, however, discovered that the country was not all made up of "Poverty Bays," nor were the Natives, when wooed with a less rough courtship, altogether

incapable of access, or entirely obnoxious to strangers. In Tolago Bay, Mercury Bay, Hawke's Bay, the Bay of Plenty, the estuary of the Thames, the harbour of Waitemata, in Whangarei, and at the Bay of Islands, and lastly, at his favourite rendezvous of Queen Charlotte's Sound, he was able to procure the refreshments which Poverty Bay had failed to supply, and he established a footing with the Natives which, if it had in it more of the spirit of barter than of hospitality, was less deterrent than the attitude taken up by those who greeted him on his first arrival, and which ended in the unfortunate events to which we have before referred.

There was no object of greater interest to him than the newly-discovered Maori race, with whose habits and character he was specially instructed to make himself acquainted. He found them savages in the fullest sense of the word. Some writers who have given the reins to their imagination have pictured savage life as a state of Arcadian simplicity, and savage character as a field on which are displayed all the virtues which adorned humanity before civilization brought vice, confusion, and trouble into the world. More truly has it been observed that "the peaceful life and gentle disposition, the freedom from oppression, the exemption from selfishness and from evil passions, and the simplicity of character of savages, have no existence except in the fictions of poets and the fancies of vain speculators, nor can their mode of life be called with propriety the natural state of man." (Whately, Pol. Econ.) "Those who have praised savage life," says Chancellor Harper, of Maryland, "are those who have known nothing of it, or who have become savage themselves." Cook's experience fully verified these views. He found the Maoris almost entirely unacquainted with mechanic arts, their skill limited to the ability to scoop a canoe out of a tree, to weave coarse clothing out of the fibres of the native flax, to fabricate fishing-nets, to make spears, clubs, and other rude weapons of war, or still ruder ornaments for the adornment of their persons, their huts, or their canoes. Beasts of burden they had none,—the women supplied their place. Stone hatchets were the substitute for axes and all cutting tools. The country is full of iron ore, but the use of the metal was entirely unknown. They had no wheeled carriages. Their agriculture was limited to the cultivation, apparently, of two roots—the kumera or sweet potato, and the taro, another esculent plant. Their food consisted of those plants, of eels and sea-fish,

rats, occasional dogs, wild fowl, and human flesh; and their nearest approach to bread was the root of the wild edible fern, a not very wholesome or palatable substitute. Cereals they were without. Their religious notions were of a confused order, involving good and evil demons, but without any idea of worship or prayer. Their priests wielded a sort of half moral and half political power in the institution of the taboo, to which they subjected whom they pleased, and the infringement of which involved punishments of the severest sorts. But the one absorbing idea of the race was war. Every tribe and almost every family was at war with every other. Their time was almost wholly spent in planning or awaiting invasions of their neighbours, or in the bloody struggles which resulted; the consequence being, as Cook observes, a habit of personal watchfulness which was never for a moment relaxed. Female infanticide was a common and established practice, which appears to have reduced the proportion of females to males, to something like seven to ten. Female virtue was entirely disregarded before marriage, and not much valued afterwards; while, to crown the whole, cannibalism was the universal practice of the race. Cook had been specially instructed to institute inquiries on this point. There were many persons at home who were sceptical on the existence of cannibalism among any people. The result of his daily observations was to leave no doubt of its existence, and to establish the fact that it was not merely an occasional excess to which those who practised it were impelled by fury and the spirit of revenge against an enemy, but that human flesh was their almost daily and habitual food. A provision-basket was seldom seen without having in it a human head, or other evidence of the fact. It is true that they told him that they ate only their enemies; but so incessant were their invasions of each other, that enemies were never wanting, or if the supply failed, slaves taken in former raids were substitutes at hand, and constantly killed in cold blood for the purpose. Much has been said and written of the deplorable fact that the foot of civilized man treads out the life of the savage; and there are not wanting those who impute to colonization the extinction of the Maori race. A moment's reflection on their habits of life as described by Cook, and still more what we have since learned, must convince any one that their decadence had set in long before his arrival; for it was impossible that any people whose habits of life were such as theirs, and who



lived within a circumscribed area, could long continue to exist. We do not believe that the advent of the pakeha has in any degree accelerated the inevitable event, perhaps the reverse has been the case.

Cook did what little was possible towards improving the condition of the New Zealanders. He tried, but failed, to establish the sheep and goat: neither long survived the attempt. He was more successful with the pig, which rapidly increased, till, at the time of arrival of the colonists, nearly the whole Islands were found thickly stocked with wild hords, the descendants of his original importation. He also left the potato behind him, which succeeded well, and to a great extent supplemented the kumera, taro, and fern root. He also planted and gave to the Natives the seeds of other vegetables and garden plants; but though their remains may be seen in the wild cabbage or turnip, and some other degenerated plants, the Natives appear not to have succeeded in their cultivation. He also scattered among them a good many English tools and implements, and some articles of clothing, which, though no doubt soon worn out, gave the Maori a taste for European luxuries and necessities of life.

We can add little to the picture we have drawn of New Zealand at the time of Cook's arrival. Reference to the accounts of his voyages will supply, in a most graphic and interesting form, the details of the events and observations which space has compelled us to summarize. To those who may wish to know more of the Maori in his primitive state and earliest transition, we recommend Judge Manning's most interesting volume of "Old New Zealand," and his not less graphic description of the war in the North. A volume in the Family Library, published by Knight, entitled "The New Zealanders," contains an authentic and original account, written by a sailor, who was shipwrecked, and lived several years in the country, between the period of Cook's visit and the arrival of missionaries and traders, and will well repay perusal. There are numerous other publications, many of which will give further information.

Cook visited New Zealand several times during his three voyages of discovery, and altogether spent 327 days in the country or circumnavigating its coasts. He quitted it for the last time in February, 1777, just two years before his melancholy death at Hawaii, in the Sandwich Islands. Within a few years afterwards New Zealand began to be occasionally visited by whaling ships; but with the solitary exception of the shipwrecked sailor whose record is above re-

ferred to, no European is known to have resided there before 1814. In that year the Rev. Samuel Marsden, Colonial Chaplain to the Government of New South Wales, visited the Islands, and, under his auspices, and on his urgent representations, the Church Missionary Society in England established a mission, the headquarters of which were located at the Bay of Islands. From this time traders from New South Wales began to establish agencies for commercial purposes; and individual Europeans, who were employed by Sydney merchants, or who traded on their own account, became attached to numerous native villages, where they were treated with considerable respect, and regarded as the valuable property of the particular hapu or chief who had had the good luck to secure their residence among them, accompanied by the various advantages which flowed from their presence. Then numerous whaling and lumbering establishments were planted by the Sydney merchants on the coasts of both Islands. These consisted of the very roughest specimens of the sailor class, of runaways from ships, or refugees from the convict prisons of Botany Bay. Alliances were contracted between these men and native women, from which sprang a numerous progeny of half-castes. These whalers and sawyers had many fine characteristics about them: they were brave and hardy, pretty well disciplined in all that concerned their business, and many of them experienced in mechanic arts. Low, exceedingly, as the *morale* of many of them was, it was yet above that of the savage; and there is no doubt that, to a great extent, their presence tended to bring the native nearer to civilization than he was before. There were, however, spots of deeper darkness than the rest. As the whaling fleet of the Pacific increased, hundreds of ships made Kororarika, in the Bay of Islands, the only town or village then established by Europeans, the place of their periodical refreshment. Their crews, released after a long detention on board ship, plunged into the lowest dissipation, in which the natives became their partners, and the town of Kororarika, which had grown into a considerable place on the strength of the whaling trade, was at times turned into a veritable pandemonium. For proof that this is no exaggeration, we refer to the first of Dr. Lang's letters to Lord Durham (1839), where the reader will find the testimony of an intelligent eye-witness, and facts in detail, but which, bad as it is, scarcely reveals so dark a picture as has been painted to us by other persons who spoke from their

own knowledge and observation. Exactly opposite, at Pahi, on the other side of the beautiful bay, in one of its pleasantest coves, with a bright beach of golden sand, washed by the ripple of the sea, stood the mission station, with its church and printing-office, and there the sacred Scriptures were being translated and printed in the Maori language, as quickly as it could be mastered by the missionaries who had undertaken the work of converting the Maori race. Thus, as everywhere, flowed alongside of each other the tides of good and evil, and the choice between the two was offered to the Maori, as it has been offered to others all the world over, and ever since the world began.

The irregular kind of colonization which was thus going on was attended with innumerable evils, and was beyond all control. It was not possible that the expediency of interference could long escape the attention of the Government of Great Britain, whose subjects were principally engaged in it; nor were the philanthropy and enterprise of the nation less alive to the opening for exertion on their part which the circumstances of the case afforded. So the British Government interfered. First they appointed a "Resident Magistrate," the Rev. Mr. Kendall, one of the missionary body; then a "Resident," Mr. Busby. But these "wooden guns," as the natives called them, were entirely without power, and the effect of their presence very little felt by either Maoris or Europeans. The Colonial Office of the day did foolish things about recognizing the Maori people as an independent nation, and bestowing on them a national flag, thus abandoning the right of occupation resting on Cook's discovery, and rendering it necessary, at a later period, to accomplish a surrender of sovereignty by the natives (though sovereignty was a thing they had never known), in order to prevent the French from taking the possession which the British Government had waived, and turning the country into a colony, or, perhaps, a penal establishment. The action of the Government was also hastened by that of the New Zealand Company, which, wearied out by long negotiations, at last precipitated, without the co-operation or consent of the Government, that systematic colonization which has since peopled the islands with a British population, and of which we shall now give a brief account.

Cook, during his life, had urged on the British Government the colonization of New Zealand, and Benjamin Franklin, the American statesman, had proposed an

organization in England for the purpose. But nothing practical was attempted till about 1837, when Lord Durham, as the representative of a number of gentlemen who called themselves the New Zealand Land Company proposed to the Government that they should be incorporated, with powers to colonize the country. The negotiations were at first friendly, and the Government favoured the plan; but ultimately misunderstandings arose, when the New Zealand Company determined to take the matter into its own hands, and despatched its preliminary expedition on the 12th May, 1839, under the command of Colonel William Wakefield, who held instructions to purchase land from the Natives, and to select the site of the first settlement. He arrived in August of the same year, and selected Port Nicholson, in Cook Strait; and on the 22nd January following, the first batch of immigrants arrived. In twelve months they had increased to upwards of 1,200 from Great Britain, besides a few from Australia.

The object of the founders of the New Zealand Company was chiefly to revive systematic colonization, and to conduct on fixed principles operations which had certainly, since the colonization of the British Colonies in America, been left very much to haphazard. South Australia was founded by nearly the same persons, and on the same principles, and almost at the same time; but the colonization of New South Wales and Tasmania, so far as they existed outside of the convict establishments, which were their nucleus, may be said to have been founded without any principle, and the result left to chance. The founders of New Zealand colonization sought to transplant to its shores, as far as possible, a complete and ready-made section of the society of the old country, with various social orders, its institutions and organizations, maintaining also, as far as circumstances would admit, the relations of the different classes of the population as they had existed at home. Above all things, they believed that the failure of other colonies to become duplicates of the old country, was owing chiefly to the indiscriminate manner in which the waste lands of the Crown had been disposed of, and to the defective proportion which, as a consequence, existed between capital and labour. They determined to remedy this by the adoption of what was known as the Wakefield theory, which consisted mainly in fixing the price of the land so high as to prohibit, for a considerable time at least, its purchase by the labouring man, thus



compelling him to work as a labourer till he might be supposed to have compensated the capitalist or the State for the cost of his importation to the colony. The immigration fund was to be supplied by the land sales.

The application of these principles can hardly be said to have been tested at all in the three first founded of the Company's settlements—Wellington, New Plymouth, and Nelson. Its inability to put the colonists, for many years, in quiet possession of the lands it had sold to them, its long and ruinous controversy with the Imperial Government, and the consequent exhaustion of its resources, precluded altogether the experiment receiving a fair trial in the settlements mentioned. In Otago and Canterbury, however, founded at a later date, there were fewer, if any, obstacles, and the remarkable success of those settlements is by many attributed to the principles on which they were founded. The elements of class association (the Free Church of Scotland and the Church of England being respectively taken as the bonds of union), and the high price of land which has been maintained, though with modifications of the original scheme, have no doubt had much to do with the form into which society in those settlements has developed itself, though the unforeseen discovery of gold, and the existence of great pastoral resources, which formed no element in the Wakefield scheme, have perhaps contributed more to the great prosperity of those settlements than any special principle on which they were founded.

Those who are now seeking a home in New Zealand, can scarcely appreciate the feelings of the early colonists, or the trials and difficulties they had to encounter. To descend from the deck of a ship 15,000 miles from home, at the end of a weary voyage of from three to five months' duration, on to a shore unprepared for their occupation, without a single house to shelter them, with no friend or fellow-countryman to welcome them, quite uncertain as to the reception they would meet with at the hands of the savage race whose territory they were peacefully but aggressively invading, with few of the conveniences of civilized life, or the appliances for creating them, except so far as they brought them with them in very limited quantities—how different from the experience of those who now arrive in the colony, where, though many external differences present themselves, they find all the machinery of social life, and the general aspect of everything very much as they left them at home. The immigrant who now

lands at Lyttelton, Dunedin, Auckland, or Wellington, finds himself surrounded by numbers of his own countrymen, dressed like himself, hurrying about on the various businesses common on the wharfs of any considerable seaport of the old country: he sees shops, with plate-glass windows, and English names above the doors, filled with the latest novelties from London, Birmingham, or even Paris; cabs plying for customers; omnibuses rumbling along the streets; hotels innumerable; churches and schools in moderate numbers; public buildings exhibiting pretentious feats of architectural skill; asphalt pavements and macadamized streets leading out to suburbs thick with comfortable and even handsome mansions, surrounded by well-kept gardens, gay with brilliant flowers and semi-tropical vegetation. Amidst all this he may, perhaps, in any of the towns of the North Island, notice a stray Maori or two, not, however, clad in the dirty blanket or rough flax mat, but "got up" in fashionable European costume, with polished boots, silk hats, gold watch-guards, and probably a silver-mounted riding-whip; and only distinguishable from the other passers-by by the dark skin, and, perhaps, the ineffaceable tattoo. In the early days the settlers felt that they were "colonizing,"—adding a new province to the Empire. Now, the new arrivals "immigrate," entering into the labours of those who went before them. The former was, perhaps, the more "heroic work." The latter is probably the most profitable, and certainly the least laborious. If it is colonizing at all, it is colonizing made easy; and the immigrant may so far congratulate himself that it is so.

Having described the character of the native race, as it was at the period of Cook's arrival, and painted it in the dark colours which truth demanded, it is only fair to say that before systematic colonization commenced it had undergone a great change.

The teaching of the missionaries, if its results were somewhat superficial, had yet penetrated to almost every part of the country. This, and the example of civilized life exhibited in the mission homes scattered over a large area, had done much to qualify the worst features of savage life, and to soften the ferocity of the Maori character. Wars were less frequent, cannibalism nearly extinct. Intercourse with the European trader and whaler, if less elevating, had yet broken down the prejudice against the *Pakeha* (or stranger), and inoculated the Maori with a taste for European conveniences and luxuries, which could

be best gratified by the permanent residence among them of larger numbers of the foreigners. The pigs and potatoes which Cook had left behind had multiplied exceedingly, so that there was an abundant supply of surplus food, without which the new comers would have been but badly off; and the aptitude of the native for trade and barter, and his desire to possess whatever the European had to offer, from muskets to Jews' harps, made him very willing to bring his stores to market. In short, circumstances had, in the order of Providence, ripened to the point when colonization was possible, which at any earlier period it would probably not have been.

It only remains briefly to mention the order in which the various settlements were formed.

1. WELLINGTON, as already stated, was founded by the New Zealand Company in 1840. Preliminary expedition for selection of site, August, 1839.

2. AUCKLAND, established by the first Governor, Captain Hobson, in the same year. It remained the seat of Government till 1865, when, by Act of the Colonial Parliament, and the selection of certain Commissioners appointed at its request by the

Australian Governors, Wellington became the capital.

3. NEW PLYMOUTH, also founded by the New Zealand Company, in September, 1841. Preliminary expedition, August, 1840.

4. NELSON, founded by the Company in October, 1841.

5. OTAGO, founded in March, 1848, by a Scotch company working in connection with the New Zealand Company, and by means of its machinery, under the auspices of the Free Church of Scotland, and with an appropriation of a portion of its lands and pecuniary resources to Free Church purposes.

6. CANTERBURY, similarly founded in December, 1850, in connection with the Church of England.

7. HAWKE'S BAY was originally a part of Wellington Province, but separated from it, and created a province of itself in 1858.

8. MARLBOROUGH, originally part of Nelson, separated in the same manner in 1860.

Descriptions of these several settlements, which, under the name of Provinces, now form the political divisions of the colony, with their local history, will be separately dealt with in subsequent chapters of the present volume.

## THE NATIVE RACE.

**A**MONG the numerous races of men with which the Briton has been brought into contact, there is none which has excited more interest than the native race inhabiting New Zealand, and none which has displayed more capacity for adapting itself to the new ways introduced by the Europeans. By nature brave and warlike, and quick to avenge real or fancied insult, the Maori has nevertheless almost altogether discontinued the practices of his forefathers. The intertribal contests of forty years ago are now unknown, and, following the example of their white neighbours, tribes are seen referring to Courts of Law those disputes respecting land which formerly could have been decided only by a conflict. The same readiness of adaptation is shown as to agriculture. From the time of the earliest traditions, the Maori has been a cultivator of the soil. He was well versed, in the nature of the lands best fitted for the esculent roots he planted—the kumera or sweet

potato, and the taro, or yam. The potato, introduced by Captain Cook, was eagerly adopted and carefully tended. The fruits brought to the knowledge of the Maori by the early missionaries, such as peaches, grapes, apples, plums, melons, and vegetables like the pumpkin, cabbage, bean, &c., were speedily appreciated and propagated; and when, with the influx of Europeans, agricultural implements were imported, he soon rendered himself familiar with them, and the plough with its team of bullocks replaced the old clumsy implements. Whatever may have been the agricultural industry to which the European has devoted himself in New Zealand, he has found native imitators. Maoris keep sheep, and shear them; grow wheat, maize, and other cereals in large quantities; start flour-mills; rear cattle and pigs; and are quite ready to welcome the introduction of any new culture, such as that of the hop or the mulberry. It was qualities of adapta-



tion such as these, and the spread of Christianity among the natives, which drew attention to the Maori race, and which have caused regret for the decrease of their numbers. How rapid that decrease has been, may be judged when it is known that in 1820 the Native population was roughly estimated at 100,000 souls, and that now it amounts to only about 40,000; 37,000 of whom are in the Northern Island; the remaining 3,000 being found in the Middle Island.

When considering the merits and attractions of the colonies or countries to which population is invited, the intending emigrant who inclines favourably to New Zealand is often deterred from giving further thought to this Colony, because of what he is told, or of what he reads on the subject of the Maoris. Their past savage life and customs—their old cannibal habits, and the fiery disposition which kept them for years at warfare with the Europeans, now in one part of the island, now in another—are familiar to the readers of the numerous books and pamphlets respecting the Colony. Such statements have been accepted as proof that all Natives are hostile, and that emigration to New Zealand virtually means settling in the midst of a barbarous population, always on the lookout for plunder.

A statement of facts explanatory of the present condition of the Maori race will enable an opinion to be formed as to the correctness or otherwise of the notion that the colonist in New Zealand is exposed to danger from the natives.

It is a fact that the Maori is warlike by nature. Before the appearance of Europeans in the country, intertribal wars were incessant; and after the arrival of Europeans, various causes led to conflicts of more or less importance and duration between the white man and the coloured—conflicts, however, which never became a war of races; for, whenever a body of natives took up arms, there was always found a still larger number who espoused the cause of their new friends, the “pakeha,” or stranger.

With regard to the fighting proclivities of the Maoris, and the prominence which has been given to them, there are two remarks to be made. In the first place, the Maori people, as found by the Europeans, were possessed of a certain degree of civilization, the remains, it is thought, of a higher state from which they had degenerated. They recognized the rights of property; they had a code of laws and honour; they had a religion, with a dim idea of a

future state; and their minds were gifted with the power of expansion—that is, they could, and did, easily learn. Having no other way in which to employ their intellectual faculties, they devoted them chiefly to one art—that of warfare; and but three occupations found favour with them—war, planting, and fishing. To find a comparison for the stage they had thus reached, and one which is to their credit, we need only look to Great Britain. The Ancient Britons stained or painted their bodies, if they did not tattoo themselves; and they fought lustily amongst each other, until the Romans came and established colonies in their midst. In the second place, the prominence given to the fighting qualities of the Maori arises from his having been brought before the world after the newspaper had become part and parcel of colonization. We have not upon record any sensational telegrams, daily leading articles, or even weekly records of the dangers and difficulties overcome by the early settlers in America; though tradition and local histories inform us of numerous disasters, of wholesale massacres, and of defeats sustained at the hands of the Red Indians, before the white man could firmly plant his foot upon the soil. But with New Zealand and the Maori it has been different. The world at large, reading accounts of past troubles and present occasional disputes, and knowing little or nothing of the actual condition of the Maori race, has accepted it as a fact that perpetual strife exists between the colonist and the native.

A simple account of the Maoris in past times is necessary to show the glaring contrast between the man-eating chiefs of two generations ago, and their well-dressed descendants, who not only have votes, but who sit in both branches of the Legislature.

There is not any record as to the origin of the Maori race. Its arrival in New Zealand is, according to tradition, due to an event which, from its physical possibility, and from the concurrent testimony of the various tribes, is probably true in its main facts.

The tradition runs that, generations ago, a large migration took place from an island in the Pacific Ocean, to which the Maoris give the name of Hawaiiiki, quarrels amongst the natives having driven from it a chief whose canoe arrived upon the shore of the North Island of New Zealand. Returning to his home with a flattering description of the country he had discovered, this chief, it is said, set on foot a scheme of emigration, and a fleet of large double canoes started for the new land. The names of most of

the canoes are still remembered; and it is related that the immigrants brought with them the kumera, the taro, seeds of the karaka tree, dogs, parrots, the pukeko, or red-billed swamp hen, &c. Strong evidence that there is truth in this reported exodus, is supplied by the facts that each tribe agrees in its account of the doings of the principal "canoes"—that is, of the people who came in them—after their arrival in New Zealand; and that there is also agreement in tracing from each "canoe" the descent of the numerous tribes which have spread over the islands. Calculations, based on the genealogical sticks kept by the tohungas, or priests, have been made, that about twenty generations have passed since this migration, which would indicate the date to be about the beginning of the fifteenth century. The position of Hawaiiiki is not known, but there are several islands of a somewhat similar name.

It is believed that the Maoris were originally Malays, who started from Sumatra and its neighbourhood, during the westerly trade winds, in search of islands known to exist to the eastward; and who, after occupying some of those islands, migrated to New Zealand. There is some evidence in support of the alleged Malay origin of the Maoris, or rather there is evidence of descent from a race possessed of higher knowledge than any shown by the Maoris since Europeans first mixed with them. Thus, they now possess the vaguest ideas of astronomy; but in former times they knew how to steer by stars, and old Natives still pretend to be able to point in the direction of Hawaiiiki. Again, the recurrence of the seasons for planting and reaping was known by astronomical signs, and each season was ushered in by festivals which were held when certain conjunctions were seen in the heavens. But now there remains only superstition, which promises success or failure to war parties in accordance with the relative positions of the moon and a particular star.

In 1642, Abel Jan Van Tasman, the first European who is known to have sighted New Zealand, found the Natives numerous and fierce; and three of his men were slaughtered at a spot in the province of Nelson, still known as Massacre Bay. During his first voyage in 1769, and on his subsequent visits, Captain Cook learned the warlike character of the Maoris; and in 1772, the French captain, Marion du Fresne, experienced it, he and fifteen of his men being killed at the Bay of Islands, partly in revenge for desecration of places held sacred by the Natives, and partly because a

previous visitant, De Launoy, had put a leading chief in irons.

In 1814, an event occurred which was destined to be of the greatest importance to the natives. In that year, the Rev. Mr. Marsden, from Sydney, New South Wales, landed with some companions at the Bay of Islands, and commenced to preach, to teach, and to study the language. Gradually other missionaries came to their assistance; but, though they toiled hard for years, were generally respected, and made some converts, they were powerless to stop or to check the frightful slaughters which took place as tribe after tribe obtained firearms. The first to acquire them, the Ngapuhi, who inhabit the country to the north of Auckland, overran the greater portion of the Northern Island, slaying and eating those who could offer no resistance to the new weapons. But gradually the supply of muskets and ammunition was increased, tribes became once more on an equal footing, and the same result took place which attended the discovery of gunpowder in Europe—conflicts became rarer, and the slaughter in action was largely diminished.

Soon after 1830, Christianity began to spread, and by 1860 it had acquired a hold over almost the entire native population. Protestant and Roman Catholic clergymen went through the land, and did their best to root out old superstitions, to substitute for them the teachings of the Scriptures, and to promote education. Gradually they brought about a marked change. Churches and schools were built; there was outward observance of religion; old customs fell into disuse; and even when a section of the Maoris rose against the authority of the Government established by the white man, they still retained the faith he had imparted to them.

It was not until 1864, when there was a revival of old superstitions and beliefs, mixed with a creed perverted from the Old Testament, that Christianity among the Maoris received a blow. "Hau-hau" (from one of the most frequent ejaculations in their prayers) was the name given to the new religion. It was accepted as a national one by the tribes then in rebellion, and the influence of the missionaries among them came to an end. But many who eagerly adopted Hau-hauism at first, have since given up it and rebellion at the same time, although some tribes, it is true, still adhere to its doctrines.

But the writer has to deal with the Maori as he is, and with his present condition—not with the past condition of the small section of the race which was in



active rebellion a few years ago ; nor with the chances and changes of the struggle, carried on at first mainly by Imperial troops under Imperial officers, but brought to a close by colonial forces under colonial officers, after the withdrawal of the British forces.

As a rule, Maoris are middle-sized and well-formed, the average height of the man being 5 ft. 6 in.; the bodies and arms being longer than those of the average Englishmen, but the leg bones being shorter, and the calves largely developed.\* The skin is of an olive-brown colour, and the hair generally black; the teeth are good, except among the tribes who live in the sulphurous regions about the Hot Lakes, near the centre of the North Island; but the eyes are bleared, possibly from the amount of smoke to which they are exposed in "whares," or cabins, destitute of chimneys. The voice is pleasant, and, when warlike excitement has not roused him to frenzy, every gesture of the Maori is graceful. Nothing can be more dignified than the bearing of chiefs assembled at a "runanga," or council, and this peculiar composure they preserve when they adopt European habits and customs, always appearing at ease, even in the midst of what would seem a most incongruous assembly. In bodily powers, the Englishman has the advantage. As a carrier of heavy burdens, the native is the superior; but in exercises of strength and endurance, the average Englishman surpasses the average Maori. As to the character of the natives, it must be remembered—if most opposite and contradictory qualities are ascribed to them—that they are in a transition state. Some of the chiefs are, with the exception of colour and language, almost Europeans; others conform, when in towns, to the dress and the customs of white men, but resume native ways, and the blanket as the sole garment, as soon as they return to the "kainga," or native village. The great majority have ideas partly European, partly Maori; while a small section, professing to adhere to old Maori ways, depart from them so far as to buy or to procure articles of European manufacture, whenever they can do so. They are excitable and superstitious, easily worked upon at times by any one who holds the key to their inclinations and who can influence them by appeals to their traditional legends; while at other times they are obstinate and self-willed, whether for good or for evil. As is usual with

racés that have not a written language, they possess wonderful memories; and when discussing any subject, they cite or refer to precedent after precedent. They are fond of such discussions; for many a Maori is a natural orator, with an easy flow of words, and a delight in allegories which are often highly poetical. They are brave, yet are liable to groundless panics. They are by turns open-handed and most liberal, and shamelessly mean and stingy. They have no word or phrase equivalent to gratitude, yet they possess the quality. Grief is with them reduced to a ceremony, and tears are produced at will. In their persons they are slovenly or clean according to humour; and they are fond of finery, chiefly of the gaudiest kind. They are indolent or energetic by turns. During planting time, men, women, and children labour energetically; but during the rest of the year they will work or idle as the mood takes them. When they do commence a piece of work, they go through with it well; and in road-making they exhibit a fair amount of engineering skill.

It has been already stated that the Northern Island of New Zealand contains a native population of about 37,000; but it must not be imagined that these are in one district, or that any considerable number are assembled in one place. In fact, they are divided into many tribes, and are scattered over an area of 28,890,000 acres, or 45,156 square miles, giving less than one native to the square mile. The most important tribe is that of Ngapuhi, which inhabits the northern portion of the North Island, within the Province of Auckland. It was among the Ngapuhi that the seeds of Christianity and of civilization were first sown, and among them are found the best evidences of the progress which the Maori can make. Forty years ago, the only town in New Zealand, Kororareka, Bay of Islands, existed within their territories. Their chiefs, assembled in February, 1840, near the "Waitangi," or "weeping water," Falls, were the first to sign the treaty by which the Maoris acknowledged themselves to be subjects of Her Majesty; and although, under the leadership of an ambitious chief, Hono Heke, a portion of them, in 1845, disputed the English supremacy, yet, when subdued by English troops and native allies (their own kinsmen), they adhered implicitly to the pledges they gave, and since then not a shadow of a doubt has been cast on the fidelity of the "Loyal Ngapuhi." Their leading chief died lately. He was a man to whom the Colony owed much, and who may be taken as a type of the Maori

\* Doctor Thomson's valuable work has been consulted in preparing this portion of the sketch.

gentleman of rank. Tamati Waka Nene (Thomas Walker Nene) was in his youth a distinguished warrior, and assisted in the raids made by his people on the tribes to the southward. Converted to Christianity by the missionaries, he was one of the first chiefs to sign the Treaty of Waitangi, and by his arguments he was instrumental in inducing others to sign, and he remained faithful to the engagements into which he entered that day. He adhered to the Government in every difficulty and trouble which arose, and to the day of his death he was a staunch supporter of English rule, setting to his people an example which they have honourably followed. His funeral was attended by a large number of both races; and, according to his desire, his body was buried in the church cemetery at the Bay of Islands—thus breaking through one of the most honoured of Maori customs, namely, that a chief's remains should be secretly interred in some remote spot, known to but a few trusty followers. During his lifetime he was honoured by special marks of distinction from Her Majesty, and after his death the Government of New Zealand erected a handsome monument to his memory. Since

then, the Ngapuhi have given another proof of the good feeling which the New Zealand Government have caused. In 1845, the British forces lost heavily before a "pa," or native fort, called Ohacawae, then held by a section of Ngapuhi in arms, and the slain were buried near the spot where they fell. Recently, however, the natives, in their desire to prove their friendship, have erected a small memorial church, in the graveyard of which they have with due honour reinterred the exhumed remains of their former foes; thus giving additional evidence of the complete extinguishment of old animosities and jealousies.

A glance at the map will show the progress which is being made with road-works in this part of the Island. Many of the roads are being constructed by native

labour, under the management and superintendence of a native gentleman holding a seat in the House of Representatives. In travelling through this district, it is not uncommon to see comfortable weather-board houses adopted by the natives instead of the "whare;" and European dress is found to have to a great extent supplanted the primitive attire of olden days. Indeed, the profits realized by digging kauri gum, and by disposing of produce, stock, &c., with the high prices obtained for labour on public works, or in the kauri pine-forests which constitute the timber wealth of the district, enable the Natives to procure the comforts of dress and of living to which

they have now become accustomed. To the north of Auckland, the two races have approached nearer to each other than in any other parts of the Island; and half-castes, a handsome and powerfully-built race, are numerous. The present generation of British settlers has grown up side by side with the Maori youth; and true friendship exists between the settler and the native.

Throughout the Colony, the social condition of the Natives is a trustworthy indication of the intercourse which they have had with Europeans. Among the Ngapuhi, at places like the Thames Gold Fields, near Auckland, about Napier, and on the west coast of the Province of Wellington, where the Maori has been brought into close contact with Europeans, there are the same evidences of an upward progress. The style of living is changed; the whare has given way to the substantial house; the blanket or flax mat is replaced by broad-cloth; and, as a matter of course, improvement in living induces improvement in mind. In the out-districts, where settlements have been established only a few years, the Maori is still in a half-and-half state. In his own village, he conforms in his habitation, his food, and his clothing, to the ways of his fathers; but poor or careless must the Maori be, especially if a





young man, who cannot appear neat and smart in English dress when on a visit to the neighbouring township. In such wild districts as the mountainous inland regions, ancestral habits have full sway; and at one locality, between the English settlements on the Waikato River and Lake Taupo, there exists a remnant of what may be termed the "National party;" who, however, though they may inveigh against "pakeha" customs, are not the less ready to dispose of their produce to the nearest trader, and to invest the proceeds in the purchase of English manufactures.

The Middle Island Natives, as before stated, number but 3,000, and they are spread over an immense extent of country, living in groups of a few families on the reserves made for them when the lands were purchased—for the whole of the Middle Island has been bought from the native owners by the Government. Whatever may be the cause, it is a fact that the natives of the Middle Island are apathetic and careless, as compared with their brethren in the North.

There are two special features apparent in the condition of the Natives. The first is the energetic revival of agriculture, to which a stop had been put during the troublous times. On such a subject it is impossible to collect statistics; but the evidence of persons well acquainted with the race goes to prove that every year greater breadths of land are brought under cultivation; that strenuous exertions are made to obtain the best implements; and that the labour of every tribe is directed to recouping the losses sustained during times of agricultural inaction. The second feature is the anxiety displayed for the education of children, and for their instruction in the English language. Nothing has more largely contributed to this than the admission of Natives, not only to the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives, but also into the ranks of the Executive Government. The Natives have thus been induced to take a deep interest in the proceedings of Parliament, and they make it their business to become well acquainted with all that goes on in each House. The discussions which take place in Parliament are criticized in even remote villages. The ignorance of our language by the Maori members is seen to be to their disadvantage; and so the Maoris of the present day are constant in their applications for schools. For the support of them, a sum is granted annually by the Legislature, which has to be supplemented by the Natives, who give lands as endowments for

the schools, procure timber for the buildings, assist in their erection, and contribute towards the salaries of the teachers. The system adopted is one of numerous day-schools established wherever children are found in some numbers; and a strict rule is that the Maori tongue is not to be used within the school. The children are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history; the girls learning also to sew, to wash, &c. They all receive lessons in tidiness, cleanliness, and order, which cannot but be salutary. In addition to the village schools, there are a few establishments, chiefly founded by religious bodies, but mainly supported by the State, where Native children are boarded. There are already forty-nine of these Native schools, with 1,268 scholars. Others are contemplated. There has not yet been time for any visible results; but the progress made by the pupils generally is such as to give good hopes for the future.

It has been said that the whole of the Middle Island has been purchased from the Natives; but this cannot be said of the Northern Island. Here the Maoris still possess a vast extent of country—too vast for them to make any use of. It was by purchase that the lands were acquired on which are situated the flourishing settlements of the North Island; and it is by purchase from the Native owners that fresh lands are being obtained, whether by the Government or by private persons. In many instances, also, large tracts are leased from the Natives, and are occupied by settlers as sheep or cattle-runs. It is, however, one of the laws of the colony, that whatever areas of land a tribe may desire to sell or lease, it shall retain a sufficiency to enable it to maintain itself; and, consequently, large reserves, made in the interest of Native sellers, are to be found in each island.

As the immigration (assisted) and public works undertaken by the Colony proceed, additional value is given year by year to the land still held by the Natives, who are aiding largely in the opening up of the country. By the Maoris generally the scheme of intersecting the Northern Island by railways and by roads has been hailed with pleasure. They have taken readily to road-making; and, by their labour, highways have been opened into the interior, along which coaches now run, passing over country which but a short time ago was accessible only by the roughest horse-tracks.

The foregoing brief sketch shows the difference between the New Zealand Native as he now is, and the wild savage he is too often falsely represented to be.

## THE PRESENT FORM OF GOVERNMENT.

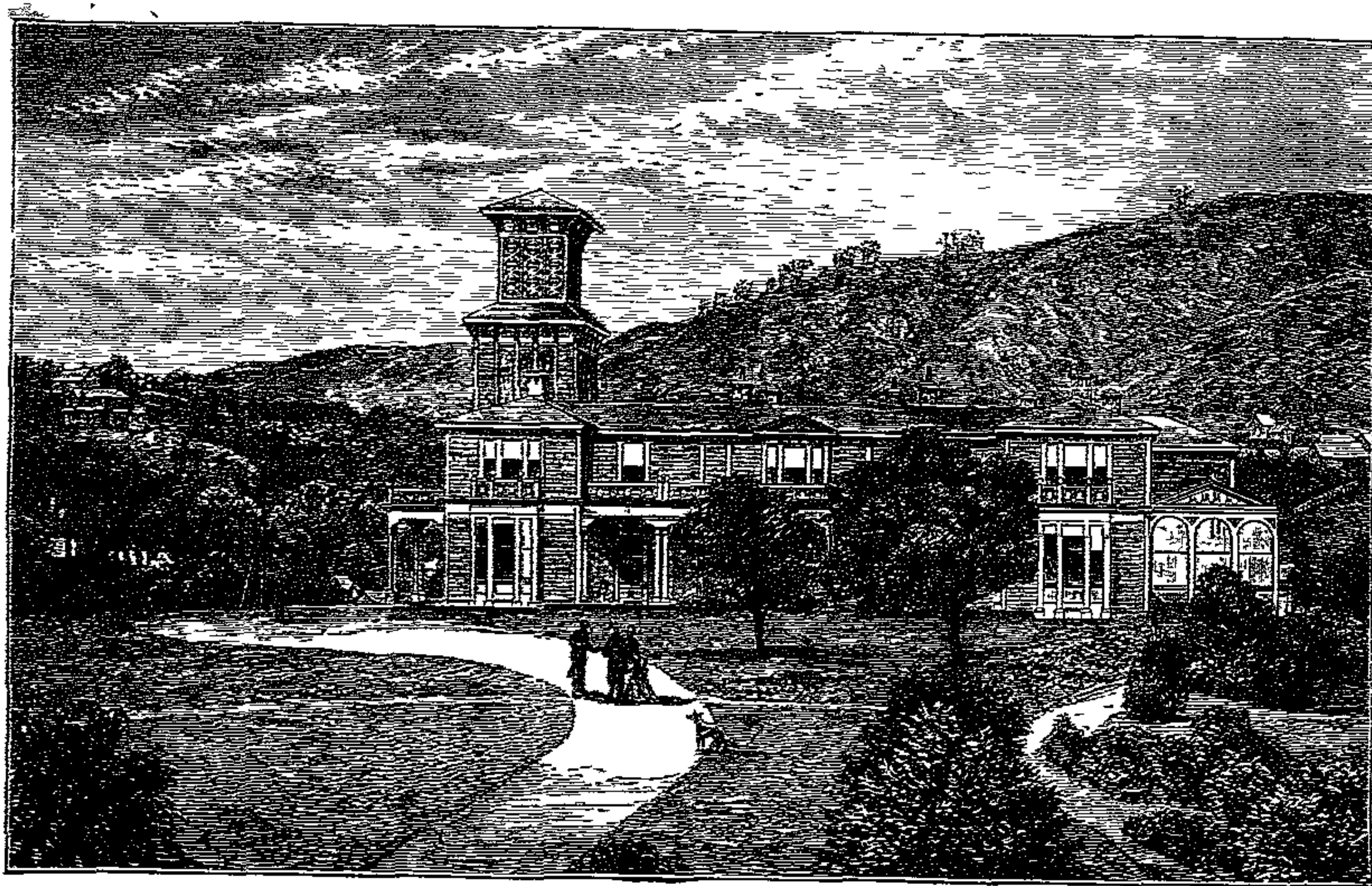
**T**HE form of government of New Zealand is as free as any in the British dominions. Executive power is nominally vested in a Governor appointed by the Queen; but he is bound to act, as is her Majesty herself, in conformity with the principles of Responsible Government, which, for practical purposes, vests the direction of affairs in the representatives of the people. In cases of direct Imperial interest, the Governor would no doubt act under orders of the Imperial Government. Legislative power is vested in the Governor and two Chambers—one, called the Legislative Council, consisting at present of forty-nine members nominated by the Governor for life; and the other, the House of Representatives, elected by the people, from time to time, for five years, and now consisting of seventy-eight members. Although the House is elected for five years, it can be dissolved by the Governor at any time, and thereupon a new election must take place. The special privileges which vest in the House of Commons regarding the raising and appropriation of public moneys, also vest in the House of Representatives. Any man of twenty-one years and upwards, who is a born or naturalized British subject, and who has held for six months a freehold of the clear value of £50; or who has a leasehold with three years to run, or of which he has been in possession for three years; or who is a householder having occupied for six months a house, in a town, of the yearly value of £10, or if not in a town, then of the yearly value of £5,—can, by registration, qualify himself to vote for the election of a member of the House of Representatives. Every man who has for six months held a miner's right on a gold field, is entitled to vote in a district partly or wholly situated within the limits of the gold fields; provided that no such person is otherwise qualified to vote within such district. Any person qualified to vote for the election of a member of the House of Representatives is also, speaking generally, qualified to be elected a member of that House. There are, however, certain special disqualifications for membership, such as grave crime, bankruptcy, and paid office (other than what is called political) in the Colonial service. Four of the members of the House are Natives, elected under a special law by Natives alone.

The Colonial Legislature, which meets once a year, has power generally to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of New Zealand. The Acts passed by it are subject to the disallowance—and in a very few cases are required to be reserved for the signification of the pleasure—of her Majesty. But there have not been, in the course of the twenty years since the Constitution was granted, more than half a dozen instances of disallowance or refusal of assent. The Legislature has also, with a few exceptions, ample power to modify the Constitution of the Colony. Executive power is administered, as before stated, in accordance with the usage of Responsible Government as it exists in the United Kingdom. The Governor represents the Crown, and his Ministers must possess the confidence of the majority in the House of Representatives. Except in matters of purely Imperial concern, the Governor, as a rule, acts on the advice of his Ministers. He has power to dismiss them and appoint others; but the ultimate control rests with the representatives of the people, who hold the strings of the public purse.

The Colony is divided into nine provinces, each of which has an elective Superintendent, and a Provincial Council also elective. In each case the election is for a period of four years; but a dissolution of the Provincial Council by the Governor can take place at any time, and it necessitates a fresh election both of the Council and of the Superintendent. The Superintendent is chosen by the electors of the whole province; the members of the Provincial Council by those of electoral districts. Any person who can vote for the election of a member of the House of Representatives, can vote (in a province) for the election of a Superintendent, or (in a district) of a member of the Provincial Council; except that holders of miners' rights cannot vote for the election of a Superintendent, though they can for that of Provincial Councillors. A qualification to vote in any of these cases is also a qualification to be elected.

Provincial Legislatures, consisting of the Superintendent and Provincial Council, pass Ordinances subject to disallowance by the Governor, or, when reserved, to the signification of his pleasure. There are certain subjects, such as Customs, Superior Courts





GOVERNMENT HOUSE, WELLINGTON.



of Law, Coinage, Postal Service, Lighthouses, Crown Lands, &c., respecting which Provincial Councils cannot legislate; and on all other matters their legislation is controlled and may be superseded by any Act of the Colonial Legislature inconsistent therewith. Otherwise, Provincial Councils can legislate for the peace, order, and good government of their respective provinces, and can raise and appropriate Provincial revenue. The administration of Provincial government is vested in the Superintendent, sometimes with and sometimes without any advising or controlling Executive Council, and is regulated by Provincial and Colonial laws.

Legislation concerning the sale and disposal of Crown lands and the occupation of gold fields is exclusively vested in the Colonial Parliament; but the administration of such laws, and the appropriation of revenues arising thereunder, are practically dealt with by Superintendents and Provincial Councils. As a rule, resolutions passed by a Council respecting modifications of the land laws of its province, are given effect to by the Colonial Legislature.

There are also, in most towns in the colony, municipal bodies, such as Mayors

and Town Councils in England, invested with ample powers for sanitary and other municipal purposes; and there are in various country districts elective Road Boards, charged with the construction and repair of roads and bridges, and with other local matters. There are also in each Province central and local Boards of Health, appointed under a Public Health Act, and having authority to act vigorously, both in towns and in the country, for the prevention and suppression of dangerous infectious diseases.

The above short summary of the system of government in New Zealand, suffices to show that the leading characteristics of the British Constitution—self-government and localized self-administration—are preserved, and in fact extended, in the New Zealand Constitution; that there is ample power to regulate its institutions, and to adapt them from time to time to the growth and progress of the Colony, and to its varied requirements; and that it is the privilege of every colonist to take personal part to some extent, either as elector or elected, in the conduct of public affairs, and in the promotion of the welfare of the community.

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## DESCRIPTION OF CLIMATE AND MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES OF NEW ZEALAND.

**NEW ZEALAND** comprises two large islands, known as the *North* and *South Islands*, with one of smaller size called *Stewart Island*. They are situated in the South Pacific Ocean, nearly at the antipodes to Great Britain.

The islands form one extended line for a distance of nearly 1,200 miles, their general direction being towards the south-west; but a straight line from the North Cape to the South Cape would not exceed 900 miles in length. Their average breadth is about 120 miles; but no part is anywhere more distant than 75 miles—or rather more than the distance from London to Brighton—from the coast. Their area is nearly 100,000 square miles; almost equal to that of Great Britain and Ireland. Their distance from Great Britain is about 12,000 miles, and from Australia about 1,200.

The **NORTH ISLAND** is about 500 miles long, its greatest breadth being about 250

miles. Its area is about 44,000 square miles, or rather less than that of England.

The **SOUTH ISLAND** is about 500 miles long, its greatest breadth being 200 miles, with an area of 55,000 square miles, or about the size of England and Wales. It is separated from the North Island by Cook Strait, thirteen miles across at the narrowest part—a feature of the greatest importance to the country, from its facilitating intercommunication between the different Provinces without the necessity of sailing right round the Colony if it was in one island.

The North Island is divided into four Provinces, viz., Auckland, Taranaki, Hawke's Bay, and Wellington. Taranaki and Hawke's Bay lie on the west and east coasts respectively, between the two more important Provinces of Auckland on the north and Wellington on the south.

The South Island is divided into five



Provinces, viz., Nelson, Marlborough, Canterbury, Otago, and Westland. (Southland was for a short time an independent Province, but now again forms part of Otago.)

Nelson and Marlborough are in the north, Canterbury in the centre, Otago in the south, and Westland to the west of Canterbury, being separated from the latter Province by the chain of the Southern Alps.

New Zealand is very mountainous, with extensive plains, which, in the South Island lie principally on the eastern side of the mountains, and in the North Island on the western side, the interior and more mountainous parts being covered with dense forest, containing almost inexhaustible supplies of fine timber.

In the North Island the mountains occupy about one-tenth of the surface, and in the South, nearly four-fifths; but in the South Island the greater part of the mountains are open, well grassed, and used for pastoral purposes.

Forest, or, as it is called in the Colony bush, is also sufficiently plentiful on the plains on the western slopes of both Islands; and a very large export trade is done in timber. The rivers are very numerous, and of large size in proportion to the area of the country; but, owing to its mountainous character, they are rapid in their course, and in only few instances navigable.

In the northern half of the North Island the mountains do not occupy so much of the land as in other parts, and do not exceed 1,500 ft. in height, with the exception of a few extinct volcanoes that reach to 2,000 ft. and 3,000 ft.

Towards the middle part of the Island are several very lofty volcanic mountains, one of which, Tongariro (6,500 ft.), is still occasionally active. Ruapehu (9,100 ft.), which is in the centre of the Island, and Mount Egmont (8,300 ft.), in Taranaki, near the west coast, are extinct volcanoes that reach above the limit of perpetual snow, Egmont being surrounded by one of the most extensive and fertile districts in New Zealand.

To the eastward of these begins the main range of New Zealand, which, broken only by Cook Strait, reaches to the extreme south of the country; but this range, which, in the South Island, is known as the Southern Alps, is crossed at intervals by low passes, which are of great value to the country, by affording easy means of communication between the east and west coasts.

The greatest height of the main range in the North Island is 6,000 ft., so that even

the loftiest peaks are not covered with snow at all seasons of the year; but in the South Island the Alpine peaks rise to from 10,000 ft. to 14,000 ft., and, like the Alps of Europe, contain in the higher regions valleys filled with glaciers or masses of sliding ice, derived from extensive snow-fields, which form the sources of the principal rivers that intersect and fertilize extensive downs and plains in their course to the sea.

#### CLIMATE.

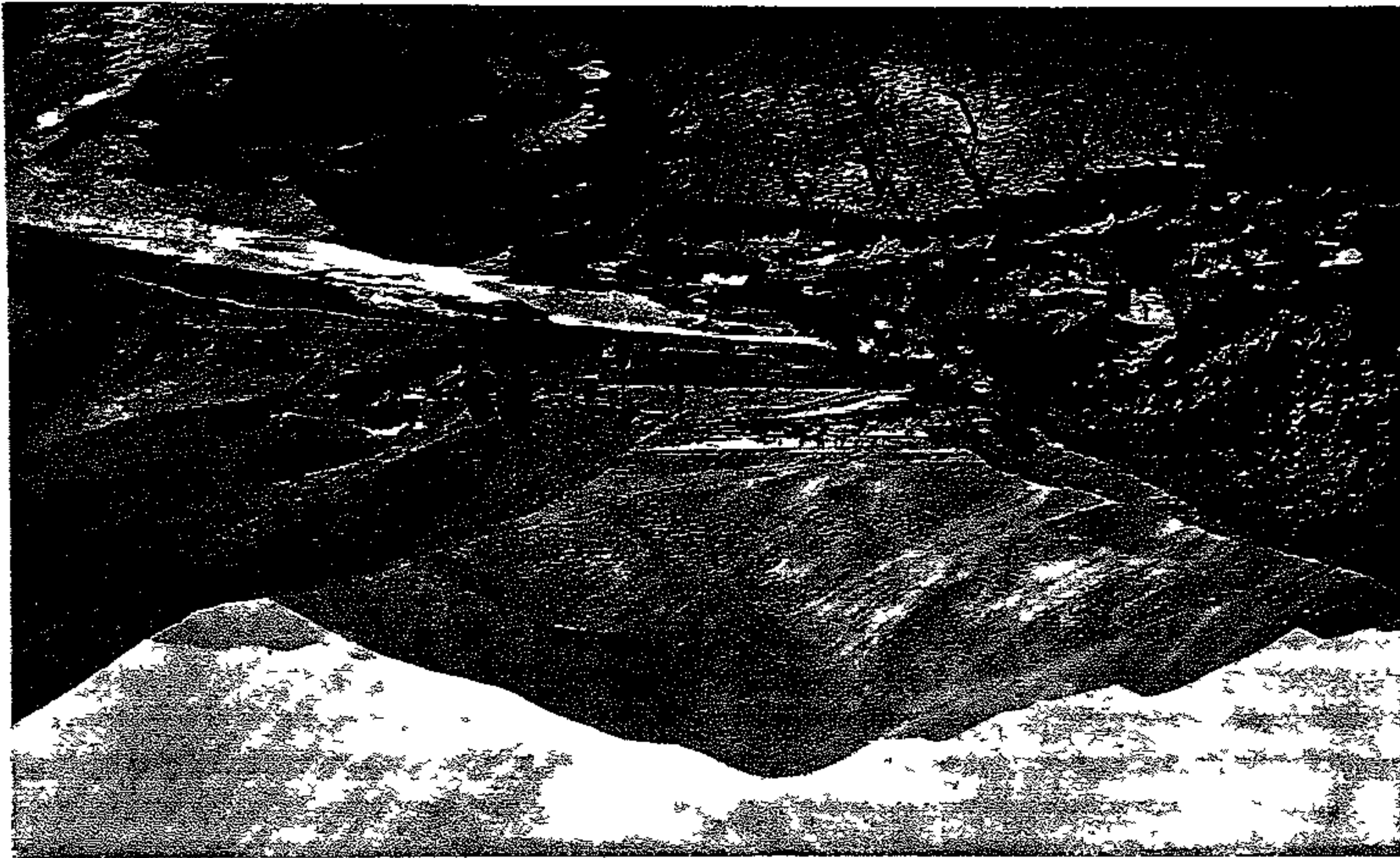
The changes of weather and temperature are very sudden; calms and gales, rain and sunshine, heat and cold, often alternating so frequently and suddenly as to defy previous calculation; so that there cannot be said to be any uniformly wet or dry season in the year. But although these changes are sudden and frequent, they are confined within very narrow limits, the extremes of daily temperature only varying throughout the year by an average of 20°, whilst in Europe, at Rome, and other places of corresponding latitude with New Zealand, the same variation amounts to or exceeds 30°. In respect to temperature, New Zealand may be compared either with England or with Italy, but London is 7° colder than the North, and 4° colder than the South Island of New Zealand, and is less moist.

The mean annual temperature of the North Island is 57°, and of the South Island 52°, that of London and New York being 51°, while at Edinburgh it is only 47°, the heat in summer being tempered by the almost continual breezes, and the winter cold being not nearly so severe as at any of the above-mentioned places, except in the uplands and extreme south.

The mean temperature of the different seasons for the whole colony is, in spring 55°, in summer 63°, in autumn 57°, and in winter 48°. January and February, corresponding to July and August in England, are the two warmest months in New Zealand; and July and August, corresponding to January and February in England, the two coldest, excepting in Nelson and Wellington, at which places the mean temperature is lowest in June and July.\*

At Taranaki the climate is remarkably equable, and snow never falls near the coast. At Wellington it is very variable, and subject to frequent gusts of wind from the hills that surround the harbour. Nelson enjoys a sheltered position and clear sky. In Canterbury the seasons are more distinctly marked, the frost in winter being occasionally severe (though it never freezes, all day near the coast), and the heat in summer often very great. The winter in







Otago is decidedly colder, and severe frosts, with deep snow upon the upland plains, are common in the winter. Stewart's Island is subject to violent winds and frequent fogs.

Strong winds are prevalent throughout the Colony, and particularly in the Straits.

Rain falls frequently, but seldom in such excessive quantity, or for periods of so great length, as in Australia; the heaviest rain seldom exceeding two days' duration, excepting on the West Coast, whilst it is rare for a fortnight to elapse without a shower.

The rainfall for the year 1871 was 54½ in., the average rainfall in England being about 45 in.

#### MINERAL.

A very large number of the population of New Zealand are occupied in mining for gold, which for the last twelve years has formed one of the most important exports of the Colony. The gold is obtained in two forms, viz., as alluvial gold (which is washed from the sand and gravel which occupy valleys in the mountain ranges), and as veins in quartz reefs.

Alluvial gold is chiefly found in the South Island in the Provinces of Otago, Westland, and Nelson, in which districts mining operations are carried on over an area of almost 20,000 square miles.

The quantity of gold exported from those Provinces up to 31st March, 1874, amounted to 6,421,061 oz., of the value of £25,273,379. Although apparently most of the richest deposits have already been discovered and worked by the miners, there is still a vast field for the employment of this alluring and reproductive description of labour, especially when mechanical appliances and the systematic introduction of water power have been more generally applied. Already the pursuit of gold, which at first was followed by individual miners, has become a more settled industry, and small communities of a permanent character now occupy districts that would have remained unexplored and unoccupied had it not been for the stimulus afforded by the search after the precious metal.

The auriferous sand, or gold drift, as it is usually termed, is of three distinct kinds:—First, that which is found in the beds of rivers, and which is worked by small parties of miners, as the process requires no large expenditure of capital to effect the separation of the gold. Secondly, immensely thick deposits of gravel, of more ancient date, occupy the wider valleys and the flat country, from which the gold can

only be obtained by means of a considerable expenditure and large engineering works for the purpose of bringing a supply of water for undermining and working the auriferous deposits. This description of mining is of a more permanent description than the former, and provision has been made by the Colonial Government for assisting the miners by the construction of water-races, which will supply the means of profitable employment to a much larger number of persons than at present gain a livelihood by this description of mining. Thirdly, along the sea coast the continued wash of the waves produces a sifting action on the sands which are brought down the rivers and drifted along the shore, thus producing deposits of fine gold, which, by the aid of simple mechanical contrivances, afford employment to a large number of diggers, who can labour without incurring the hardships and privations which attend the occupation of the miner in the more inland districts.

The extraction of gold from the lodes, or quartz reefing, as it is termed, is still in its infancy in New Zealand except in the Thames district of the Province of Auckland, in the North Island, where gold quartz has been mined since 1852. At this place the mountain range which forms the Colville peninsula is intersected by veins of quartz impregnated with gold and silver; and though the district as yet tested by the miners is a very insignificant portion of the whole area of country of a similar character, it has already produced precious metals to the value of £3,051,461.

The Thames mines are chiefly worked by companies, which have in some instances gained enormous fortunes, though in many cases, from over speculation and defective management, they have proved failures. Labour can only be employed in this description of mining by combination, and the employment of capital, but the mining companies are often formed of working men, who hold shares, besides which they afford employment to a large number of miners, who receive good wages; and the miners so employed, while they cannot expect the rich prizes which occasionally reward those who work on the alluvial diggings, are yet more certain of steady and remunerative employment.

The latest discoveries on the gold fields have led to the development of quartz reefing in the South Island, and as alluvial mining gradually engrosses less exclusive attention, it cannot be doubted, from the experience of other gold-producing countries, that there will be found many more localities



ties in which quartz reefing will become a permanent industry.

Other valuable metals, such as silver, mercury, copper, lead, chrome, manganese, and iron have been discovered in various parts of the Colony, and in due time will be profitably worked when the circumstances of the labour market permit. Ores of the last-mentioned metal—iron—are remarkably abundant, and are already attracting attention, so that several mining and smelting companies have been formed, the operations of which will afford a very considerable employment for labour.

Coal-mines have been opened in all parts of the Colony, the coal being of two distinct descriptions, viz., that which is adapted for steam purposes, or black coal, and brown coal, a variety which, though too bulky, and giving out its heat too slowly to be useful for steamers on long voyages, is, nevertheless, of great value for steamers on coastal voyages, for stationary engines at manufactories, and for domestic use, being quite equal, for the latter purpose, to much of the coal that is used in Germany and Austria.

The black coal seams occur chiefly on the West Coast of the South Island, in several distinct coal-fields, which cover an area of nearly 100 square miles. The principal coal-fields are in the vicinity of shipping ports at Collingwood and the Buller and Grey Rivers; but the last-mentioned places are only at present accessible to vessels of moderate size, so that the difficulty of shipping the coal has retarded the development of the mines, which would at first have to compete with the extensive mines of New South Wales that at present supply nearly all the steam coal used in New Zealand.

The construction of railways and other works, however, is now in active progress for the service of these coal-fields, and as they are subdivided and let by Government on extremely favourable terms to lessees, it may be expected that in a short time several mines will be in full working order, and that thriving communities will spring up in the above-mentioned places. Mining of brown coal, deposits of which are scattered over all parts of the Colony, though not likely, except in a few instances, to support such large mining communities as the black coal, will yet afford, in time, extensive employment. Already, near some of the centres of population, there is a large trade in this description of coal, while many country districts where firewood is deficient, depend entirely on it for fuel. Its value, therefore, in assisting in the future development of

the country, can hardly be over-estimated. Some of the more extensive deposits of brown coal contain seams of great importance, and of such superior quality as to approach that of the true black coal; as, for instance, at Kawa Kawa, in the Bay of Islands; in the Waikato, south of Auckland; the Malvern Hills near Christchurch, and the Clutha Valley, near Dunedin; and in Southland.

#### PETROLEUM.

As a natural product derived from the decomposition of coal-seams, it is proper to mention the occurrence of petroleum or rock-oil springs in various parts of the Colony, particularly at Taranaki, on the West Coast, and in the vicinity of Poverty Bay, near the East Cape, in the North Island. The quality of the petroleum in the latter place is quite equal to that obtained in Canada and the United States, as it yields, by a simple refining process, 80 to 75 per cent. of commercial kerosene. Companies have been formed for extracting this rock oil, but the works are not yet sufficiently advanced to determine whether it will be a profitable speculation in the present state of labour in the Colony, and the very low price of the imported article. A liberal bonus has, however, been offered by the Government with the view of fostering this industry, the development of which, in recent years, has led to so much prosperity in certain districts of the United States of America.

#### AGRICULTURE.

Allusion has been made to the area of country occupied by mountain ranges in New Zealand, and the general position they occupy with reference to the geography of the country; and it may be further stated that, with the exception of the Alpine ranges, every part of the country is more or less adapted for settlement of some kind. A clearer idea of the value of the country, and the purposes to which it is applicable, is, however, obtained by a comparison of the rock formations, the decomposition of which produces the soils, as shown in the following table, from a study of which it will be found that in the whole Colony there are about 12,000,000 acres of land fitted for agriculture, wherein the form of surface is suitable, and about 50,000,000 which are better adapted for pasturage; but from these estimates allowance must be made for about 20,000,000 acres of surface at present covered by forest.

It would be beyond the scope of this paper to describe in detail the endless varie-

## AREA OF DIFFERENT FORMATIONS IN NEW ZEALAND.

	North Island.	South Island.	Totals.
1. Fluvial drifts, one-third agricultural...	8,447	6,286	14,733
2. Marine tertiary, two-thirds agricultural (rest pastoral) .....	13,898	4,201	18,099
3. Uppersecondary, coal-bearing, pastoral...	2,890	2,110	4,500
4. Palaeozoic, pastoral ... ..	5,487	20,281	25,668
5. Schistose, pastoral .....	...	15,808	15,808
6. Granitic, worthless .....	...	5,978	5,978
7. Volcanic, one-sixth agricultural (rest pastoral) .....	14,564	1,150	15,714
Square miles .....	44,736	55,264	100,000

ties of soil which are found in New Zealand, but attention may be drawn to the chief peculiarities:—

In the north of Auckland, including the lower portion of the Waikato Valley, light volcanic soils prevail, interspersed with areas of clay marl, which, in the natural state, is cold and uninviting to the agriculturist, but which, nevertheless, under proper drainage and cultivation, may be brought to a high state of productiveness. The latter are, however, almost universally neglected at the present time by the settlers, who prefer the more easily worked and more rapidly remunerative soils derived from the volcanic rocks.

In the western district, which extends round Taranaki and Wanganui, the soil is all that can be desired, and is probably one of the richest areas in the Southern Hemisphere. The surface soil is formed by the decomposition of calcareous marls, which underlie the whole country, intermixed with the debris from the lava-streams and tuffaceous rocks of the extinct volcanic mountains. The noble character of the forest-growth which generally covers the area, proves the great productiveness of its soil, although at the same time it greatly impedes the progress of settlement.

In the central district of the North Island, from Taupo towards the Bay of Plenty, the surface soil is derived from volcanic rocks of a highly siliceous character, and large areas are covered with little else than loose friable pumice-stone. Towards the coast, and in some limited areas near the larger valleys, such as the Waikato and the Thames, and also when volcanic rocks of a less arid description appear at the surface, great fertility prevails, and any deficiencies in the character of the soil are amply compensated for by the magnificence of the climate of this part of New Zealand. On the eastern side of the slate range, which

extends through the North Island, the surface of the country is generally formed of clay marl and calcareous rocks, the valleys being occupied by shingle deposits derived from the slate and sandstone rocks of the back ranges, with occasional areas of fertile alluvium of considerable extent. It is only the latter portions of this district which can be considered as adapted for agriculture, while the remainder affords some of the finest pastoral land to be met with in any part of the Colony.

In the South Island the chief agricultural areas are in the vicinity of the sea coast, but there are also small areas in the interior, in the vicinity of the Lake districts, where agriculture can be profitably followed. The alluvial soil of the lower part of the Canterbury plains and of Southland are the most remarkable for their fertility; but scarcely less important are the low rolling downs, formed by the calcareous rocks of the tertiary formation, which skirt the higher mountain masses, and frequently have their quality improved by the disintegration of interspersed basaltic rocks.

On the western side of the Island the rapid fall of the rivers carries the material derived from the mountain ranges almost to the sea coast, so that comparatively small areas are occupied by good alluvial soil; but these, favoured by the humidity of the climate, possess a remarkable degree of fertility.

By the proper selection of soil, and with a system of agriculture modified to suit the great variety of climate which necessarily prevails in a country extending over twelve degrees of temperate latitude, every variety of cereal and root crop may be successfully raised in New Zealand; and with due care in these respects, New Zealand will not fail to become a great producing and exporting country of all the chief food staples.



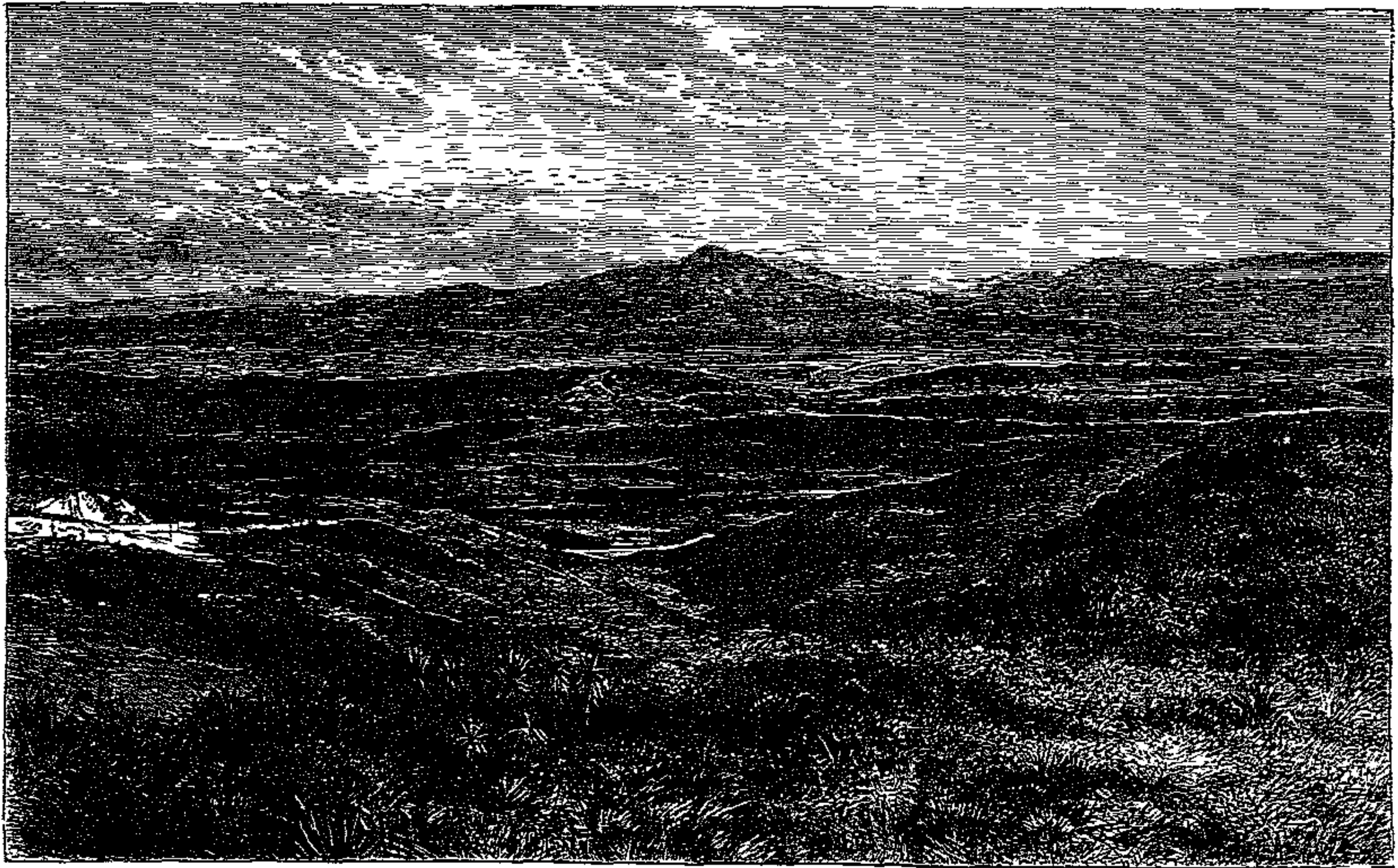
## ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

Until the systematic colonization of the Islands, New Zealand was very destitute of terrestrial or animal life suitable to the wants of civilized man, the only mammals being a small rat, a dog (which had been probably introduced since the Islands were peopled by the present race), and pigs, the produce of some animals left by Captain Cook and the navigators who succeeded him. Soon after the establishment of the settlements in New South Wales, an intercourse sprang up between Sydney and the northern parts of the Islands, which were also frequently visited by whale-ships; and through the agency of the early missionaries and other visitors, many useful animals and plants were then introduced. In more recent years all kinds of domestic animals, many of very high quality, have been imported, including valuable continental breeds of sheep and the American llama. Domestic poultry of almost every species has also been introduced, and, through the agency of the Acclimatization Societies, many species of game (such as hares, pheasants, partridges, black game, red grouse, quail, &c.), and a host of the smaller birds of Europe and other countries, have been spread throughout the Islands. The rivers of New Zealand, too, which formerly produced only the eel and a few small salmonoid fish of little value, are gradually being stocked with trout; whilst perch, tench, and carp have also been satisfactorily acclimatized.

The seas around New Zealand, however, always make up, by the abundance and large variety of the valuable fish which they produce, for the scantiness of the terrestrial fauna. Amongst these we may name the hapuka (a very large species of cod), the king fish, frost fish, butter fish, red schnapper, moki, barracouta, kawai, sole, dory, flounder, and many others, all in considerable quantity and of delicious flavour; besides which, shoals of mackerel and pilchard occur during certain seasons of the year. Oysters, mussels, crayfish, and other mollusca and crustacea of great value and of excellent quality abound, requiring only proper systematic culture to become a source of wealth to the Colony. There is no doubt, in fact, that the New Zealand fisheries, which have hitherto been little looked after, but are now being protected under legislative enactments, will become of considerable import-

ance with the spread of trade and intercourse. As regards the vegetable productions, it would occupy too much space in a publication like the present to give any proper account either of the indigenous or introduced flora. The indigenous forest of New Zealand is evergreen, and contains a large variety of valuable woods, amongst which we may name the puriri, the matai (or black pine), the rimu (or red pine), the kahikatea (or white pine, whose timber is, for its lightness and toughness, well adapted for the manufacture of packing-cases, &c.), the totara (a species of yew), the hinau (from the bark of which a very valuable tannin is extracted), and various species of beech. Most of these trees produce excellent timber for ordinary building purposes, many of them yield handsome furniture woods, whilst the beech is one of the most valuable shipbuilding timbers known, seasoning easily and being extremely durable. Amongst the smaller plants, the *Phormium tenax*, or New Zealand flax, is of especial value; whilst large tracts of country are covered with indigenous grasses of high feeding quality, which support millions of sheep, and have thus been productive of great wealth to the Colony. Many of the more valuable trees of Europe, America, and Australia have been introduced, and have flourished with a vigour scarcely ever attained in their own natural habitats. In many parts of the Colony the hop grows with unexampled luxuriance; whilst all the European grasses and other useful plants produce returns equal to those of the most favoured localities at home. Fruit, too, is abundant all over New Zealand. Even as low as the latitude of Wellington, oranges, lemons, citrons, and loquats are found; whilst peaches, apples, pears, grapes, apricots, figs, melons, and, indeed, all the ordinary fruits of temperate climates, abound. Roots and vegetables of all kinds grow abundantly: and, in fact, it may truly be said that nearly all the useful orchard and garden productions of England are now known in New Zealand, and come, under proper treatment, to equal perfection. Agriculture, too, is beginning to be followed out upon an extensive and improved system; and as the colonists are giving themselves more and more to this mode of life, there can be little doubt that, with the increase of population—which, from the Government scheme of immigration may well be expected to be rapid—more attention will be paid to it, and more capital be invested in it.





AGRICULTURAL DISTRICT, SHAG VALLEY, OTAGO.



## SOME OF THE INSTITUTIONS OF NEW ZEALAND.

NO account of New Zealand would be complete that did not include a notice of some of those institutions of social life that in England are the outcome of the ages during which it has been evolving its grand history, but which, having been transplanted to the Colony, have taken root and flourished as in most congenial soil. It is indeed marvellous that at the close of a period only extending through one-third of a century, or about the average term of one generation, there should be found in a colony at the antipodes of Britain, churches, colleges, schools, literary and scientific societies, libraries, museums, and other institutions of similar character, such as in the most highly-favoured countries are marking an age of progress, and aiding in its development.

Side by side with these there have also grown up many institutions which, while connected with and to a large extent working by the machinery of Government, are nevertheless strictly social, and tend to aid the people in their various businesses, to facilitate kindly as well as commercial intercourse, and to foster those habits of prudence and forethought without which neither persons nor communities can be permanently prosperous. Some of these will form the subjects of this paper.

### SAVINGS-BANKS.

Savings Banks were formed at a very early date in the history of the Colony, and in 1858 an Act was passed for their regulation, as a consequence of which, savings-banks were opened in all the chief towns of the several Provinces.

In 1867 Post Office savings-banks were instituted, in which year the private savings-banks (which were then ten in number) received £71,378. 2s. 2d., and repaid £80,784. 5s. 7d., retaining funds to the amount of £85,658. 14s. 5d. at the credit of 4,223 depositors, giving an average of £20. 5s. 8d. to each account. During the same year forty-six branches of the Post Office savings-bank were opened, receiving (from the 1st of February) £96,372. 7s. 10d., and repaying £26,344. 18s. 2d., leaving (with interest added) £71,197. 14s. 1d. at the

credit of 2,156 depositors, being an average of £33. 0s. 5d. to each account. In this first year, therefore, the receipts of the Post Office savings-banks exceeded those of the private savings-banks by nearly two-fifths, whilst the withdrawals did not amount to one-third of the sums withdrawn from the latter; thus leaving the accumulations in the Post Office savings-banks to approach as nearly to those in the private savings-banks as 14 is to 17. From that time the deposits in the Post Office savings-banks have increased with marvellous rapidity, so that at the end of the year 1872 there were ninety-one offices open, while during the year the sum of £430,877 was received, the sum of £313,176. 7s. 11d. was repaid, and a total of deposits was left amounting to no less a sum than £490,066. 7s. at the credit of 13,566 depositors, being an average of £36. 2s. 5d. at the credit of each account.

This great increase was not (as might be supposed) counterbalanced by any corresponding diminution of receipts or balances in the private savings-banks. The number of such banks was reduced to seven, three having been merged into the Post Office savings-banks, but the remaining seven received £56,780. 12s. 6d., and repaid £40,784. 18s. 4d. in the year, adding as the result £15,995. 14s. 2d. to their amount of deposits, the total of which at the end of the year was £106,936. 11s. 1d. at the credit of 3,723 accounts, being an average of £28. 14s. 6d. to each account. Thus, though the number of banks and depositors had decreased, the deposits had increased by £21,277. 16s. 8d., becoming just one-fourth in excess of the amount they had reached when the Post Office banks were opened. It is evident, therefore, that the latter had supplied a want, and been largely instrumental in encouraging provident habits in the community; for not only is the whole of the £490,066. 7s. an addition to the accumulations of 1867, but there is a further addition of upwards of £21,277 likewise.

The following table (extracted from the Annual Statistics of the Colony) shows the details of the private savings-banks for the year 1872:—



TABLE showing the NUMBER of SAVINGS BANKS (other than those connected with the Post Office) in NEW ZEALAND; the respective DATES of their ESTABLISHMENT; and the NUMBER of DEPOSITORS in the Year 1872, distinguishing the European and the Aboriginal Native Depositors.

WHERE SITUATED.	Date of Establishment.	Numbers having Deposits in the respective Banks on the 31st Dec., 1872.			Total Amounts to the Credit of such Depositors on 31st December, 1872.								
		Euro-peans.	Maoris	Total.	Of Europeans.			Of Maoris.			Total.		
					£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Auckland .....	1847	1,804	0	1,810	86,181	6	11	49	10	0	86,280	16	11
New Plymouth	1850	69	5	74	1,925	6	1	274	10	6	2,199	16	7
Napier .....	1864	180	...	180	4,233	4	7	...	...	...	4,233	4	7
Nelson .....	1860	533	...	533	11,916	5	10	...	...	...	11,916	5	10
Hokitika .....	1866	256	...	256	6,850	13	4	...	...	...	6,850	13	4
Dunedin .....	1864	1,224	1	1,225	40,189	17	10	1	4	5	40,191	2	3
Invercargill .....	1864	145	...	145	5,314	11	7	...	...	...	5,314	11	7
General Totals...	...	3,711	12	3,723	106,611	6	2	325	4	11	106,936	11	1

Average of Deposits, £28. 14s. 6d.

Comparing the state of things in the Colony with what has taken place in England, the contrast is very remarkable, though there also the Post Office savings-banks have been a most signal success. From the latest return (that for 1872) it appears that the deposits in the Post Office savings-banks there had amounted to £19,318,339, but it also appears that, in the period between the formation of the Post Office savings-banks in 1861, and 1871, the deposits in the private (or "Trustee") savings-banks had been reduced from £41,259,145 to £38,640,022; so that nearly one-seventh of the deposits in the Post Office savings-banks would seem to have been withdrawn from the Trustee savings-banks; and yet, although the latter had suffered to the extent of upwards of two and a half millions sterling, their deposits almost exactly doubled those of the Post Office savings-banks.

This contrast with the state of things in England would in all probability be still stronger, but for two causes which in this Colony have always tended to reduce the amounts that have found their way into the savings-banks, both of which causes have been even more operative of late years than formerly. One of these is the facilities which are given by the ordinary banks to persons of comparatively small means to open accounts with them. As a consequence of this, numbers of persons keep banking accounts who would never have thought of keeping such in England, and,

indeed, would not have been able to keep them.

The other cause that tends to reduce the amount of deposits, is the almost universal desire to buy land. This desire is manifested in every class of the community, and certainly not the least strongly in that numerous class who in the Colony find themselves in a position to become landholders, which, in their native country, would have been all but physically impossible to them. It is, therefore, constantly happening that as soon as, say, £50 is laid by, it is withdrawn and invested in the purchase of land; and even Natives of New Zealand have been known to place money in a savings-bank, and add to it from time to time, until enough was accumulated to purchase some coveted piece of land in or near to an European settlement.

If, therefore, the amounts in the various savings-banks were small instead of being just upon £600,000, it would still be true that savings-banks are more useful than their founders could have hoped for, and are performing an important part in the settlement of the country; and it is quite possible that another year or two may prove their utility—however paradoxical the statement may appear—by the deposits being largely reduced, and the money used for land-purchases, as the country is made accessible by roads and railways.

The following table will show the yearly progress of savings-banks in the Colony from the year 1867 (inclusive):—

Amount of Deposits.	Private Savings Banks.	Post Office Savings Banks.	Totals.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
At close of year 1867 ... ..	85,658 14 5	71,197 14 1	156,856 8 6
Added in year 1868 .....	Dr. 5,561 8 0	92,321 1 6	86,760 18 6
" " 1869 .....	8,976 10 10	67,792 9 8	76,769 0 6
" " 1870 .....	4,358 16 3	64,060 16 4	68,419 12 7
" " 1871 .....	3,870 19 8	62,282 12 11	66,162 12 2
" " 1872 .....	9,623 18 4	132,411 12 6	142,035 10 10
Totals .....	106,986 11 1	490,066 7 0	597,002 18 1

## INSURANCE.

In the year 1869 an Act was passed enabling the Government to grant life assurances and annuities on the security of the colonial revenue. This differed from the Act passed in England some years previously, as the latter only allowed insurances or annuities to be granted for very small sums, while the New Zealand Act imposed no limit upon the amount. The business of the office actually commenced in March, 1870, and, as was expected, its beginnings were small, yet by the 30th of June fifty-three persons had availed themselves of the advantages it offered, by effecting insurances to the amount of £27,800. The business of the office has gone on steadily increasing, so that on the 30th of June, 1873, the Commissioner was able to report that 2,901 persons had effected insurances for an aggregate sum of £1,085,649, and also that sixty persons had provided endowments amounting to £6,500, while seventeen others had paid for annuities of the value of £950. 15s. 8d. per annum. Thus 2,901 heads of families had secured that in the event of their decease, an average sum of nearly £375 should be paid to those they might leave behind them—a sum which would “keep the wolf from the door” until other means of support might be secured. There is this further advantage in that which has been done. Those 2,901 persons (or families) have submitted to the deduction of a sum equal to £10. 12s. out of the yearly income of each one, to secure a prospective benefit. While this proves the existence of a spirit of self-denying forethought, the opportunity of using some portion of the yearly earnings in this way tends, like its kindred institution the savings-bank, to foster habits of care and prudence.

It would not be fair to suppose that the system of Government insurances in England should show results relatively equal to those that have been secured in New

Zealand, because there the Government insurances are for very limited amounts while great facilities exist for effecting life insurances with private offices; yet, when looking at what has been done in the Colony, it would hardly have been expected that the results in England would have been so small as they are. The English Act was passed in 1864, yet at the end of 1871—nearly seven years after—there were only 2,709 insurances current, for sums amounting in the whole to £208,070. Besides these, there were current 1,798 contracts for immediate annuities, and 258 for deferred annuities, the amount of both classes being £42,167.

There are other life assurance offices doing business in New Zealand, and an Act was passed in the last session of the Assembly, giving persons the power to register their policies against deposits previously made in a Government office by the grantors of the policies.

## POST OFFICE.

The statistics of the Post Office, like the other statistics of the Colony, exhibit an increase that is far greater than anything that could have been caused by an increase of the population, without a more than corresponding increase of prosperity. The office has so grown in the thirty-three years during which it has been established, that it can show the following as the statistics for the year 1872:—

Letters received ... .. 3,588,073  
 „ despatched ... .. 3,370,470  
 Newspapers received ... .. 2,767,682  
 „ despatched ... .. 1,643,407

Comparing the increased use of the Post Office with the increase of the population for the periods given, these results are obtained:—

Between 1853 and 1857 the population increased 57½ per cent., but the letters received and despatched increased 130 per cent., though newspapers only increased 6 per cent. Again, between 1857



and 1872 the population increased 401 per cent., and in the same period the letters received and despatched increased 1,060 per cent., and newspapers 510 per cent. Thus between 1853 and 1857 the rate of increase in letters was more than twice the increase of population, and between 1857 and 1872 the rate of increase was more than four times the increase of the population. The following table will show this more clearly, as it gives (as nearly as may be) the numbers of letters and newspapers passing through the Post Office for every individual of the population, young and old:—

	1853	1857	1872
No. of letters received for each individual (man, woman, and child)...	2½	3	12½
No. of letters despatched...	2½	3½	12
No. of newspapers received	3½	5½	10
No. of ditto despatched ...	3½	4½	6½

It must be added that the postal revenue of the Colony has increased from £4,100. 2s. 1½d. in 1857, to £46,162. 13s. 6d. in 1872, and this, too, notwithstanding repeated reductions in the rate of postage.

A large part of the increase in the number of letters has been caused by the diminution of rates. Instead of 1s. for a "single" letter conveyed a little more than 100 miles, the rate is now 2d. for the half-ounce from any place in the Colony to any other place in the Colony, excepting within the limits of towns, in which the postage is only 1d.; while the postage to Australia is but 2d., and 6d. to the United Kingdom. Newspapers are conveyed between any two places in the Colony at a postage of ½d., and to any place beyond the Colony at 1d.; and book and pattern parcels are conveyed at about half the rates for letters. All postages are prepaid by stamps, which have been used since 1858.

There were at the close of the year 1872, 533 post offices in the Colony, of which 14 were "chief" or accounting offices, and 91 were money-order and savings-bank offices. Letters are delivered once or twice in a day in all towns, merchants and others have "private boxes" in the post offices of most towns of importance, and pillar letter-boxes and receiving-houses enable persons to post their letters without inconvenience. The arrangements for the conveyance of

mails are also very extensive, so as to meet the requirements and convenience of the public. The Postmaster-General, in his report for the year 1872, states,—

"During the year there were 233 inland mail services in operation; 66 being performed by coach and mail-cart, 102 on horseback, 10 on foot, 38 by water, and 7 by railway. The aggregate of the distances to be travelled for the 223 services was 6,768 miles; and the total number of miles travelled was 1,180,364, at a cost to the department of £21,838."

Besides this there is a mail service to Australia, by steamers running between Auckland and Sydney, and between the southern ports and Melbourne; thus enabling communication to be held with Australia about five times in each month. There are also two mail services in each month between the Colony and England; one by which the mails are carried to and from Melbourne, and thence to and from England *via* Suez; and one *via* San Francisco and New York. For the first of these the Colony pays £5,000 per annum for the portion of the service between New Zealand and Melbourne, and a proportionate amount of the cost of the service between Melbourne and England according to the number of letters forwarded by it. The second service has been undertaken jointly by the colonies of New South Wales and New Zealand at a gross cost of £80,000. The receipts for postage both in the United Kingdom and the colonies will very much reduce the cost of this service, of which each colony pays half.

Very much, therefore, has been done to make the Post Office in New Zealand a worthy imitation of the vast and mighty postal establishment of Great Britain.

#### MONEY ORDERS.

One of the most important developments of the Postal department has been the establishment of the money-order system. It was first brought into operation in the Colony on the 1st of August, 1862, but its growth with regard to places outside the Colony was very gradual, as some delay and difficulty was experienced before the other Australian colonies could be induced to co-operate. The following table, extracted from the report of the Postmaster-General for 1873, will show the progress made from the commencement to the 31st of December, 1872, being a little less than ten years and a half:—



## MONEY ORDERS ISSUED IN THE COLONY.

Year.	WHERE PAYABLE.									TOTAL.							
	In the Colony.			United Kingdom.			Australian Colonies.										
	No.	Amount.			No.	Amount.			No.	Amount.			No.	Amount.			
		£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.	
1862	2		15	0	0	1,059	4,716	8	1	349	1,850	0	0	1,410	6,500	17	1
1863	2,201		9,013	11	11	4,740	21,044	2	1	4,615	24,115	7	5	11,680	55,703	1	5
1864	4,207		19,427	4	4	7,700	35,741	5	0	4,625	23,388	10	2	16,592	78,550	10	6
1865	6,202		20,712	15	1	7,756	33,426	11	5	3,188	15,406	17	2	17,236	78,576	3	8
1866	8,021		42,828	4	7	9,238	41,087	15	0	4,518	28,068	5	2	22,710	108,779	4	0
1867	10,203		49,406	13	0	9,242	40,908	14	11	4,098	25,115	5	1	24,473	115,610	13	0
1868	11,808		54,312	18	3	9,241	40,581	13	0	4,715	23,286	11	5	25,851	118,211	3	8
1869	11,905		63,807	1	10	9,203	39,930	8	0	4,850	23,381	14	7	28,427	127,218	4	11
1870	16,821		73,311	11	4	9,024	41,472	3	7	5,410	25,637	12	7	31,864	140,451	7	11
1871	20,514		88,516	9	7	10,407	44,197	13	3	5,370	24,053	5	0	30,291	157,397	13	7
1872	23,156		120,123	14	8	10,619	44,535	0	0	5,885	20,317	17	7	44,000	191,000	2	0
Total	123,668		551,375	5	3	88,889	389,541	10	4	48,102	237,190	15	11	261,103	1,178,107	11	0

## MONEY ORDERS PAID IN THE COLONY.

Year.	WHERE ISSUED.						TOTAL.	
	In the Colony.		United Kingdom.		Australian Colonies.			
	No.	Amount,	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount,
		£. s. d.		£. s. d.		£. s. d.		£. s. d.
1862	2	15 0 0	102	515 11 8	50	204 1 0	100	824 12 8
1863	2,067	9,109 4 6	415	1,821 0 8	558	3,077 18 7	3,010	14,070 18 0
1864	4,243	19,417 10 5	675	3,271 2 2	607	3,776 1 7	5,620	26,467 14 2
1865	6,218	20,282 13 10	762	3,568 15 10	700	3,712 1 6	7,680	36,603 11 1
1866	8,880	42,769 10 9	1,100	5,021 14 0	917	4,753 3 10	10,903	52,543 9 4
1867	10,353	40,931 17 2	1,193	5,649 2 10	1,108	5,570 6 1	12,659	61,151 6 4
1868	11,903	54,349 8 3	1,401	6,502 3 0	1,294	6,685 1 3	14,598	67,538 12 6
1869	14,250	63,820 15 5	1,218	5,030 18 8	1,272	6,332 4 3	16,740	75,833 18 4
1870	16,708	73,215 8 3	1,158	5,523 4 4	1,207	6,055 6 11	19,221	84,823 10 0
1871	20,514	88,592 0 3	1,398	6,217 11 5	1,318	6,911 18 7	23,228	100,724 10 3
1872	27,083	110,670 1 2	1,504	7,078 8 0	1,450	6,803 15 3	30,043	133,658 4 11
Total	123,222	550,268 10 0	10,827	50,805 13 10	10,046	53,021 14 0	114,795	554,098 17 10

These figures show that between 1863 (the first complete year of the system) and 1872, the number and amount of orders issued in the Colony increased nearly four-fold, and that in the same period the number of orders paid in the Colony increased tenfold, and their amount between ninefold and tenfold, the amount in the latter year being just nine and a half times as large as in the former.

In the Colony, as in England, the amount for which any money order can be drawn is limited to £10, nor can more than one for that sum be obtained in favour of the same person by the same remitter on any one day. The commission charged on inland orders is 6d. for sums under £5, and 1s. for sums exceeding £5; on orders payable in the Australian colonies, double the above rates; and on orders payable in the United Kingdom, rates varying from 1s. on sums under £2, to 5s. for sums exceeding £7. For inland orders by telegraph, a commission of 4d. in the £ sterling is

charged, besides 1s. for the transmission of the message.

## TELEGRAPH.

This, which has been entirely the growth of the last few years, is now becoming one of the most important institutions of the Colony, and is entirely in the hands of the Government. Its commencement was due, partly to the necessities of military service in the districts south of Auckland, and partly to the impetus given to the Southern Provinces by the opening of their gold fields. There were enormous difficulties to overcome, the country being to a large extent rugged and wild, while the Islands being divided by Cook Straits, rendered it necessary to undertake the laying of a telegraph cable to connect them; yet notwithstanding this, the work has been pushed on so rapidly that in July, 1873, the Telegraph Commissioner reported "that 2,356 miles of line had been completed, carrying 4,574 miles of wire." The entire

cost, inclusive of the cable, was also stated to have been £224,580. It may be added that when about thirty miles more of line has been constructed in the neighbourhood of New Plymouth, every place of importance in the Colony will be brought into telegraphic communication.

The following extracts from the report already quoted will show the work that had been done during the year 1872-73 :—

"During the year, there were transmitted 568,960 telegrams of all codes, being 157,193 more than the previous year, or an increase of over 38 per cent.

"The number of money order telegrams sent was 5,791, representing £28,106.16s. 8d., being an increase of 2,755 messages, and of more than £14,000 as compared with 1871-72. The amount of commission collected by the Post Office was £770. 1s. 4d.; and deducting therefrom £289. 11s. as fees for the telegrams sent, there was left to the Post Office £480. 10s. 4d., or rather more than £1. 14s. per cent. on the total sum transmitted. Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin, and their sub-offices, issued the largest number of orders; while Auckland, Wellington, and Dunedin paid the largest number.

"The length of line maintained was 2,314 miles, at a cost of £9,479. 5s. 4d., or an average of £4. 1s. 11d. per mile. Thirteen new offices were opened, and 20 cadets were trained in the Learner's Gallery, and draughted to different stations.

"The total earnings for the year were £51,364. 6s. 4d.; so that, deducting the cost of the signals, department, and main-

tenance of lines, and charging the receipts with 6 per cent. on the capital expended (£224,580. 11s. 11d.), there remained to the credit of the department, on the year's business, about £870.

"In some of the Provinces, 25 telegrams have been transmitted for every 100 letters posted, and for the whole of New Zealand 19 telegrams have been despatched for every 100 letters posted. Last year, the average for the Colony was 17.02 of telegrams per 100 letters. The total number of telegrams transmitted was 568,960, or an average of rather more than 2 per head of the population of the Colony—a proportion which is not equalled in any other colony or country."

The following table, extracted from the same report, is also interesting, as showing in detail the large amount of work the telegraph is doing, as compared with that which is being done by the Post Office. As will be seen at a glance, the number of letters has increased year by year, but the number of telegrams has increased much more rapidly. Thus, in 1867-68, when the number of interprovincial letters was 1,938,578, the proportion of telegrams was less than  $5\frac{1}{2}$  to each 100 letters, or about one-eighteenth part; but in 1872-73, when the letters had increased to 2,878,372, the number of telegrams was more than 19 $\frac{1}{2}$  for each 100 letters, or almost one-fifth part. The letters, therefore, had increased about 48 $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., but the telegrams had increased by no less than 436 per cent., or just nine times the rate of increase of the letters.

TABLE showing the Number of INTERPROVINCIAL LETTERS forwarded during the Year ended 31st DECEMBER, 1872; Number of TELEGRAMS despatched in each PROVINCE during the Year ended 30th JUNE, 1873; and Proportion of TELEGRAMS to every 100 LETTERS; together with a similar Return for the previous Year :—

PROVINCE.	1872-73.			1871-72.		
	Number of Letters.	Number of Telegrams.	Proportion of Telegrams sent for every 100 Letters.	Number of Letters.	Number of Telegrams.	Proportion of Telegrams sent for every 100 Letters.
Wellington ...	418,842	105,872	25.15	318,497	70,604	22.16
Marlborough ...	62,818	15,851	25.23	52,802	12,258	23.21
Nelson ...	202,150	52,376	25.90	161,809	29,021	18.54
Canterbury ...	421,092	78,071	17.35	375,467	52,616	14.01
Westland ...	194,722	35,137	18.04	182,915	26,558	14.51
Otago ...	755,430	126,368	16.72	644,536	114,512	16.85
Southland ...	95,795	21,935	22.89	77,800	16,638	20.10
Hawke's Bay ...	101,741	21,497	21.12	82,740	5,097	14.66
Taranaki ...	48,748	8,721	17.88	84,755	83,568	17.15
Auckland ...	577,039	108,632	18.80	487,134		



	1872-73.	1871-72.	1870-71.	1869-70.	1868-69.	1867-68.
Total No. of Letters...	2,878,372	2,418,021	2,626,947	2,874,060	2,749,488	1,988,578
Total No. of Telegrams	568,960	411,767	312,874	185,423	146,167	106,104
Proportion of Telegrams to every 100 Letters ... ..	19.76	17.02	11.91	7.81	6.12	5.47

While it is gratifying to see that already the telegraph is to so large an extent self-supporting, it is to be remembered that this is notwithstanding—or perhaps in consequence of—the large reductions that have been made in the scale of charges. For upwards of four years the charge was by a “mileage” rate, which made the cost amount to from 2d. to 6d. per word. This was altered on the 1st of September, 1869, to a uniform rate of 2s. 6d. for the first ten words, and 6d. for every additional five words or fraction thereof. This was again altered, on the 1st of April, 1870, to 1s. for the first ten words, and 6d. for each additional five words; and, finally, on the 1st of November, 1873, the charge was still further reduced to 1s. for the first ten words, and 1d. for every word additional, neither addresses nor signatures being counted unless they together exceed ten words. The Press telegrams have always been sent at considerably lower rates than those charged for ordinary messages.

One novel and important application of the telegraph, noticed incidentally above, deserves to be more particularly referred to. This is the engrafting of the money-order system on to the telegraph, so that money may be remitted from any part of New Zealand to any other within reach of the telegraph wires, without the inevitable delay required by the course of post. That this is a great convenience to the public is shown by the fact that, from the 15th of June, 1870, when the system was introduced, to the 31st of December in that year, 927 orders were sent through the telegraph for sums amounting to £4,266. 11s. 7d. During the following year the orders were 2,485, and the amount, £11,332. 1s.; and in the year 1872 they had increased to 4,503 orders, representing the sum of £21,669. 18s. 8d. All this has been done without accident or loss; and although the rate of charge for such orders considerably exceeds the cost of those sent through the post (being 4d. for each pound sterling, besides 1s. for the message), yet it is evident that this use of the telegraph may be regarded as a very successful experiment.

There are now ninety-five telegraph stations in New Zealand, and messages are conveyed from any one station to any other at the uniform rate stated above. Messages can also be sent to or through England from

any telegraph office in the Colony, being sent by steamer to Sydney or Melbourne, and forwarded from thence by wire to London.

In the last session of the Colonial Parliament an Act was passed authorizing the Government to unite with the Governments of New South Wales and Queensland in guaranteeing the interest on a sum not exceeding £1,000,000 sterling (provided that such guarantee shall not cost New Zealand more than £20,000 per annum), for thirty-five years, to any company or person “for the construction, maintenance, and working of a telegraph cable from New Zealand to New South Wales,” and a “through cable” from Normantown, in Queensland, to Singapore. When this shall have been carried into effect, New Zealand will be in direct telegraphic communication with Australia, and, through Australia, with Great Britain and the rest of the civilized world. Thus, within half the average duration of human life, the time required for communication between New Zealand and England will have been reduced from an average of five months to something less (probably) than as many hours.

In connection with the Telegraph Department, it is pleasing to bear testimony to the ability and energy of the general manager, Mr. Charles Lemon. Having read in an English publication a paper by Mr. R. S. Culley, giving an outline of his successful attempt to transmit messages simultaneously in opposite directions along the same wire, Mr. Lemon instituted a series of experiments, and himself succeeded in this interesting and very valuable extension of practical telegraphy. Mr. Lemon recently coupled two of the wires in the cable across Cook Straits, which separate the North from the South Island, and had connections made with the Wellington and Blenheim offices, which are the working ends of the cable. He had thus a circuit of thirty-two miles of land wire and eighty-two miles of cable; and through it there were transmitted from each end simultaneous messages, the signals being clear and strong, although the battery-power used was less than is ordinarily employed in working the cable. It is believed that Mr. Lemon’s arrangement will be found applicable to longer lengths of wire than that stated above; and it is hoped that a practical adaptation of it will soon be made.



At all events, the arrangement may be said to have doubled the capacity of the Cook Straits cable.

#### LAND TRANSFER SYSTEM.

The difficulties in the way of conveying land and readily giving good titles has been felt in New Zealand as in other colonies; and in 1870, the system introduced by Mr. Torrens in South Australia was introduced in New Zealand. It is somewhat amended, to suit the circumstances of the Colony, and is found to work exceedingly well.

To illustrate the nature and extent of the change from the old system, let it be supposed that a town acre had been originally laid out of a rhomboidal shape, having its side lines at an angle of say sixty degrees to the line of street. Let it further be supposed that the purchaser of this acre, desiring to make his land rectangular, effected exchanges with his neighbours on either side, giving triangular pieces of his land for pieces of theirs of similar shape. There would thus be *three* sets of deeds to complete the title to his land, each of which might require the production of original titles as well as powers of attorney, the non-production of any one of them rendering him unable to deal with his estate, and all requiring to be recapitulated, should he desire to sell or mortgage it. To quote the words of Mr. J. S. Williams in the "Handy Book on the Land Transfer Acts," issued by the Government: "In these processes there is no finality,—they have to be repeated upon every fresh transaction; and as each transaction entails a fresh deed, the chain is lengthened, and every new dealing becomes more complicated than the preceding one. The lawyer, of course, expects to be paid for his labour in investigating titles, and for his responsibility in damages to his client in case a title proves defective. Hence the expense of transactions, and with the expense, no corresponding advantage, for a man has no guarantee for the goodness of his title beyond the skill of his lawyer."

Under the new system, if the owner of land puts it under the Act, one searching examination is made by the officer appointed for that purpose, and when he is satisfied, a certificate of title is issued to the landowner, on a form printed for the purpose, having, therefore, all its terms absolutely fixed, requiring only the name of the proprietor and the particulars of the land and its encumbrances (if any) to be filled in, and by this all doubts are for ever quieted, for (again to quote Mr. Williams), "from thenceforth the certificate of title is con-

clusive evidence that the person named in it is entitled to the land it describes. The certificate of title operates as a Government guarantee that the title is perfect. It is indefeasible, and there is no going behind it."

There is also a further convenience secured by the Act. A person who has sold land that had not previously been brought under the Act, may apply to have it brought under, and that the certificate may be issued to his purchaser. The certificate thus operates as a conveyance without any additional expense.

As it is just possible that injustice may be done in some rare instances by the issue of a certificate to a wrong person, a fund is created by a charge of one halfpenny in the pound on the value of all land brought under the Act, out of which any person who has suffered injury through the issue of a certificate, may receive fair compensation. It is gratifying to add that no claim of this kind has been made in the three years during which the Act has been in operation, and that the Assured Fund now exceeds £5,000, showing that land to the value of nearly two and a-half millions of money has been brought under the Act.

It is further to be observed that in respect of all lands purchased from the Crown since the 1st of March, 1871, the titles are necessarily issued under the Land Transfer Act. It follows that no newly-purchased land can be subject to the complications that occurred under the former system.

The one operation of bringing land under the Act having been effected, all further dealings with the land are carried out by means of printed forms, which can be filled up by any person of ordinary education. In this way land can be sold, leased, mortgaged, or otherwise dealt with, while in case of a mortgage being paid off, a simple receipt, indorsed upon the copy of the mortgage held by the mortgagee, and also upon the copy in the Registry Office, operates as a reconveyance, without the necessity for a fresh deed. Special provisions are made to meet the engagements entered into by members of Building Societies when they become borrowers, thus securing the applicability of the Act to all the requirements of the community.

#### PUBLIC TRUST OFFICE.

There is another institution peculiar to New Zealand called the Public Trust Office. This was created by an Act passed in 1872, and the purposes of the Act have been described thus:—

"The appointment of a Public Trustee."



SUPREME COURT, AUCKLAND.





is an attempt to insure the faithful discharge of trusts, and at the same time to relieve persons from being obliged to burden their friends with the responsibilities of trustees. Farther, the Public Trust Office Act proposes to substitute a permanent officer for guardians who, with the best possible intentions, are liable to be incapacitated for the duties they have undertaken, by removal, change of circumstances, or death. A guardianship is thus established which will continue long after the individual who first exercised it will have ceased to act."

The Act was brought into operation on the 1st of January, 1873; and by another Act passed in that year, the charge of intestate estates and the estates of lunatics was also devolved upon the Public Trustee. The office being so entirely novel, having as its only precedent that of the Accountant-General of the Court of Chancery in England, will naturally require time to develop its usefulness; but already it has been taken advantage of to an extent that demonstrates the advantage of such an institution. Executors who saw that they were likely to be burdened with trusts continuing over many years, have declined to act, knowing that the estate would be taken charge of by a public office; and already it is known that, in making their wills, the owners of large properties have made the Public Trustee their executor and trustee for their children; while in one case, the trustee under a marriage settlement, who had power to delegate his trust, finding himself failing in health, and being anxious to secure the property of the children of a deceased sister, applied to the Public Trustee to take charge of the estate. Further, as the Act says that whenever the Supreme Court may appoint a trustee, guardian, or committee of a lunatic's estate, it may appoint the Public Trustee, it has been expressed by one of the Judges that it is a satisfaction to the Court to be able to appoint a public officer instead of having the name of some person proposed, into whose fitness for the office the Court would have to inquire.

It must be added that, for the protection of persons placing property in the Public Trust Office, the Colony is made ultimately responsible; but at the same time, to preserve the public funds as far as possible from loss in this way, no trust can be received, nor any property parted with, without the consent of a Board, of which the Colonial Treasurer and the Attorney-General of the Colony are members; nor can any money be issued without the signature of one of the Commissioners of Audit.

#### NEWSPAPERS.

The following newspapers are published in the colony:—

OTAGO.—Dunedin: *Daily Times*, *Guardian*, *Evening Star*, daily; *Witness*, *Southern Mercury*, *Tablet*, weekly. — Oamaru: *North Otago Times*, twice weekly. — Lawrence: *Tuapeka Times*, twice weekly. — Tokomaro: *Bruce Herald*, twice weekly. — Waikouati: *Herald*, weekly. — Naseby: *Chronicle*, weekly. — Olyde: *Dunstan Times*, weekly. — Cromwell: *Argus*, weekly. — Arrowtown: *Observer*, weekly. — Queenstown: *Wakatipu Mail*, weekly. — Invercargill: *Southland Times*, *Southland News*, thrice weekly; *Weekly Times and News*. — Riverton: *Western Star*.

CANTERBURY.—Christchurch: *Lyttelton Times*, *Press*, *Star*, daily; *Times*, *Press*, weekly; *Illustrated News*, monthly. — Timaru: *Herald*, *South Canterbury Times*, thrice weekly.

MARLBOROUGH.—Blenheim: *Express*, twice weekly; *Times*, weekly. — Picton: *Press*, weekly. — Kaikoura: *Herald*, weekly.

NELSON.—Nelson: *Evening Mail*, daily; *Colonist*, thrice weekly. — Westport: *Times*, twice weekly; *News*, weekly; Charleston: *Herald*, twice weekly; *News*, weekly. — Reefton: *Courier*, daily; *Inangahua Herald*, thrice weekly. — Lyell: *Argus*, twice weekly.

WESTLAND.—Hokitika: *West Coast Times*, *Evening Star*, *Westland Register*, daily; *The Leader*, weekly. — Greymouth: *Grey River Argus*, *Evening Star*, daily; *Argus*, *Press*, weekly. — Ross: *Guardian*, thrice weekly.

WELLINGTON.—Wellington: *Independent*, *Evening Post*, *Tribune*, daily; *New Zealand Mail*, weekly; *Waka Maori*, fortnightly. — Wanganui: *Chronicle*, *Evening Herald*, daily; *Chronicle*, *Herald*, weekly. — Greytown: *Wairarapa Standard*, twice weekly.

HAWKE BAY.—Napier: *Herald*, *Telegraph*, daily; *Times*, twice weekly; *Telegraph*, weekly.

TARANAKI.—New Plymouth: *Herald*, *News*, twice weekly.

AUCKLAND.—Auckland: *Southern Cross*, *New Zealand Herald*, *Evening Star*, daily; *News*, *Herald*, weekly. — Thames: *Advertiser*, *Evening Star*, daily. — Coromandel: *The Mail*, *News*, thrice weekly. — Tauranga: *Bay of Plenty Times*, weekly. — Gisborne: *Poverty Bay Standard*, twice weekly. — Waikato: *Times*, thrice weekly.

Various denominational or special publications, trade-circulars, &c., are omitted from this list.

## NOTES STATISTICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND INDUSTRIAL.

THE numbers and condition of the people naturally claim attention first. An incomplete return exists for the year 1843, from which it is estimated that the population in that year was,—

Males	...	...	...	...	...	7,264
Females	...	...	...	...	...	5,924
Total	...	...	...	...	...	13,128

The following table shows the numbers at the end of each quinquennial period since 1851 :—

TABLE showing the NUMBERS of the PEOPLE and their CENTESIMAL INCREASE for each of the following Quinquennial Periods.

	1851.	1856.		1861.		1866.		1871.	
	No.	No.	In crease.	No.	Increase.	No.	Increase.	No.	Increase.
Males	15,085	25,356	68·6	61,062	189·1	125,080	104·8	156,431	25·0
Females	11,672	20,184	72·9	37,959	88·0	79,034	108·2	110,555	39·8
Totals	26,707	45,540	70·5	99,021	117·4	204,114	106·1	266,986	30·8

It cannot fail to be observed, that while it is thus shown that the population increased just tenfold in twenty years, a very large and abnormal portion of that increase occurred between the years 1856 and 1866, from which it might be surmised that the discovery of gold took place somewhere within that period. That such was the fact will be shown in a subsequent part of this paper. It may be added that the estimated population at the end of 1872 was,—

Males	...	...	...	...	162,404
Females	...	...	...	...	117,156
Total	...	...	...	...	279,560

In 1848, Mr. Domett states that out of the people then in New Munster, 26·51 per cent. (or a little more than one-fourth) had been born in the Colony. Supposing these proportions to have remained about the same until 1861, the population at that date may be divided thus :—

Immigrants	...	...	...	19,627
Persons born in the Colony	...	...	...	7,080
Total	...	...	...	26,707

At the census in 1871\* it was found that the people were divided thus :—

Immigrants	...	...	...	192,341
Persons born in the Colony	...	...	...	64,052
Total	...	...	...	256,393

\* The census was taken in February, 1871. The numbers given in the preceding table are those at the close of the year.

The persons born in the Colony were thus a fraction less than one-fourth of the population, or somewhat less, relatively, than in 1851.\* The numbers of immigrants had increased in the twenty years from 19,627 to 192,341, or nearly tenfold; whilst the numbers born in the Colony had increased from 7,080 to 64,052, or more than ninefold. More correctly, the numbers who had come from elsewhere to settle in the country had increased 980 per cent., and the numbers of those born in it had increased 905 per cent. It thus becomes evident that New Zealand has continued to present inducements sufficient to cause a continual influx of persons from Europe and from the neighbouring colonies.

Another point worthy of notice is, that in 1858 the proportion of males above 21 years of age to females of similar ages was as 28 to 17 nearly; while in 1871, the proportions were as 37 to 19. In other words, in 1858 out of every thousand persons above 21 years of age, 619 were males and 381 females; but in 1871, out of every thousand, 660 were males and 340 females. This larger increase of adult males than of females is what might reasonably be expected as a result of immigration; and that it is due to this cause is shown by the fact that in 1858 the proportion of males under 6 years to females of that age was as 13 to 12, while

\* If the proportion stated by Mr. Domett had been maintained, the numbers born in the Colony would have been 67,970, instead of 64,052.

at the census of 1867 the proportions of those under 5 years (the ages having been taken differently to those in the former census) was as 270 to 271, and at the census of 1871 the numbers were almost identical—23,369 males and 23,209 females.

The proportion of bread-winners has also more than kept pace with the numerical increase of the population, for in 1858, out of every 1,000 persons nearly 310 were males between the ages of 18 and 60, while in 1871 (taking the nearest ages given, viz., 15 to 55), there were 364 males out of every 1,000. The wealth-producing power of the community had thus increased in 22 years by nearly 17½ per cent., in addition to the extent to which it was increased by the addition that had been made to the population.

The enormous ratio of increase will be best understood by observing that in the ten years ending in 1872 the population of Great Britain had increased just 8 per cent., while New Zealand, in the same period, had increased 70 per cent. Yet how much room there is for increase may be seen by comparing the number of the population living on a square mile in England and New Zealand. The area of England and Wales is stated to be 58,320 square miles,\* while the area of New Zealand is computed to be 102,000 square miles, two-thirds of which are fitted for agriculture and grazing. There is, therefore, more available land in New Zealand than in Britain, while the population of New Zealand is not quite one-eightieth part of that of England and Wales. Thus, it is stated that in that portion of the United Kingdom at the census of 1871, there were 389 individuals on every square mile; and in New Zealand at the same time there were not 4 persons on each square mile of available land.† Such figures speak for themselves.

It is gratifying to note that with the increase of the numbers of the people in the Colony, there has been an increase in their comforts also. The numbers of houses are a proof of this. These have increased from 12,812 in 1858, to 57,182 in 1871. In 1858, in each 100 houses there were 463

inhabitants. In 1871 there were only 448. The improvement in the social condition of the people is proved by the fact that in 1871 there were 1,806 more houses than would have been required to give the same accommodation that was given by the houses of 1858. According to the census of 1871, the number of persons in each 100 houses in England and Wales was 533.

The houses, too, were of a better class in 1871 than they were in 1858. Taking, first, the materials of which they were constructed, the proportions of the different kinds in each 1,000 houses were as follows:—

	1858.	1871.
Built of wood ... ..	795	804
Built of brick and stone	24	27
Built of other materials*	181	169
	1,000	1,000

Taking, again, the number of rooms in each house, the comparison is equally favourable; but the comparison must be made from the numbers given in 1861, as in 1858 the number of rooms was not taken. The proportions for each 1,000 houses are,—

	1861.	1871.
Houses of 1 or 2 rooms ...	472	402
„ 3 „ ...	125	132
„ 4 „ ...	144	178
„ 5 „ ...	67	79
„ 6 rooms and upwards	192	209
	1,000	1,000

A still more important matter is the state of education among the people. There is a difficulty in making comparisons in this particular, because, in 1858, the population was divided in the educational returns into those who were under 12 years of age and those who were above 12; but in 1871 the division was made at 15 years of age. To obviate this as far as practicable, the numbers for the year 1858 have been altered by adding to the number of children under 12, one-half of the number returned as between 12 and 18, and deducting a similar amount from those above 12; the numbers who could read and write being taken to bear the same proportion to that number that the whole number able to read and write bore to the whole population. Further, the number attending schools was taken as bearing the same proportion to the half of those between 12 and 18, as the whole number attending school bore to the whole number of children and youths between 0

\* These figures, and also those relating to New Zealand, are taken from "The Statesman's Year Book" for 1873, but it is not stated whether any allowance had been made for portions of the United Kingdom which cannot be profitably occupied.

† In 1872 there were rather more than four persons to each square mile, or 411 on every 100 square miles.

\* Including raupo buildings and tents.



and 18 years of age. In this way it is estimated that in 1858 out of every 100 children of the school-age (6 to 15), 54 could read and write, and 51 were attending schools, of which three-fifths were attending day-schools, and the other two-fifths were attending Sunday-schools only. Of the whole population of all ages, rather more than 68 out of every 100 (635 out of every 1,000) could read and write.

In 1871, out of every 100 children between the ages of 5 and 15, 59 could read and write, and nearly 72 were attending school, of which more than three-fourths were attending day-schools, and less than one-fourth were attending Sunday-schools only. Of the whole population rather more than 69 out of every 100 (692 out of every 1,000) could read and write. The proportion who could read and write was thus 9 per cent greater in 1871 than in 1858.

The vital statistics remain singularly similar. In 1858, for every 1,000 persons alive at the commencement of the year, 44 children were born during the year, and 10 persons of all ages died. In 1871, for every 1,000 persons, 41 children were born and

10 persons died. In England and Wales, in 1871, 36 children were born for every 1,000 of the population, and 22 persons died.

In 1858 there were 62 criminal convictions in the Supreme Court, and 1,169 convictions in the Resident Magistrates' Courts, besides 1,418 convictions for drunkenness. There was, therefore, 1 person out of every 48 convicted of some offence, besides 1 person out of every 42 convicted of drunkenness.

In 1871 there were 144 criminal convictions in the Supreme Court, 18 in District Courts, and 6,824 in Resident Magistrates' Courts, besides 4,682 convictions for drunkenness. This was equal to 1 person in 38 being convicted of some crime, and 1 person in 57 convicted of drunkenness. These proportions are painfully large, and it is singular to observe that, while the criminal convictions had increased nearly 26 per cent., as compared with those of 1858, the convictions for drunkenness had decreased by nearly 33 per cent. The following table will show the variations in the different Provinces.—

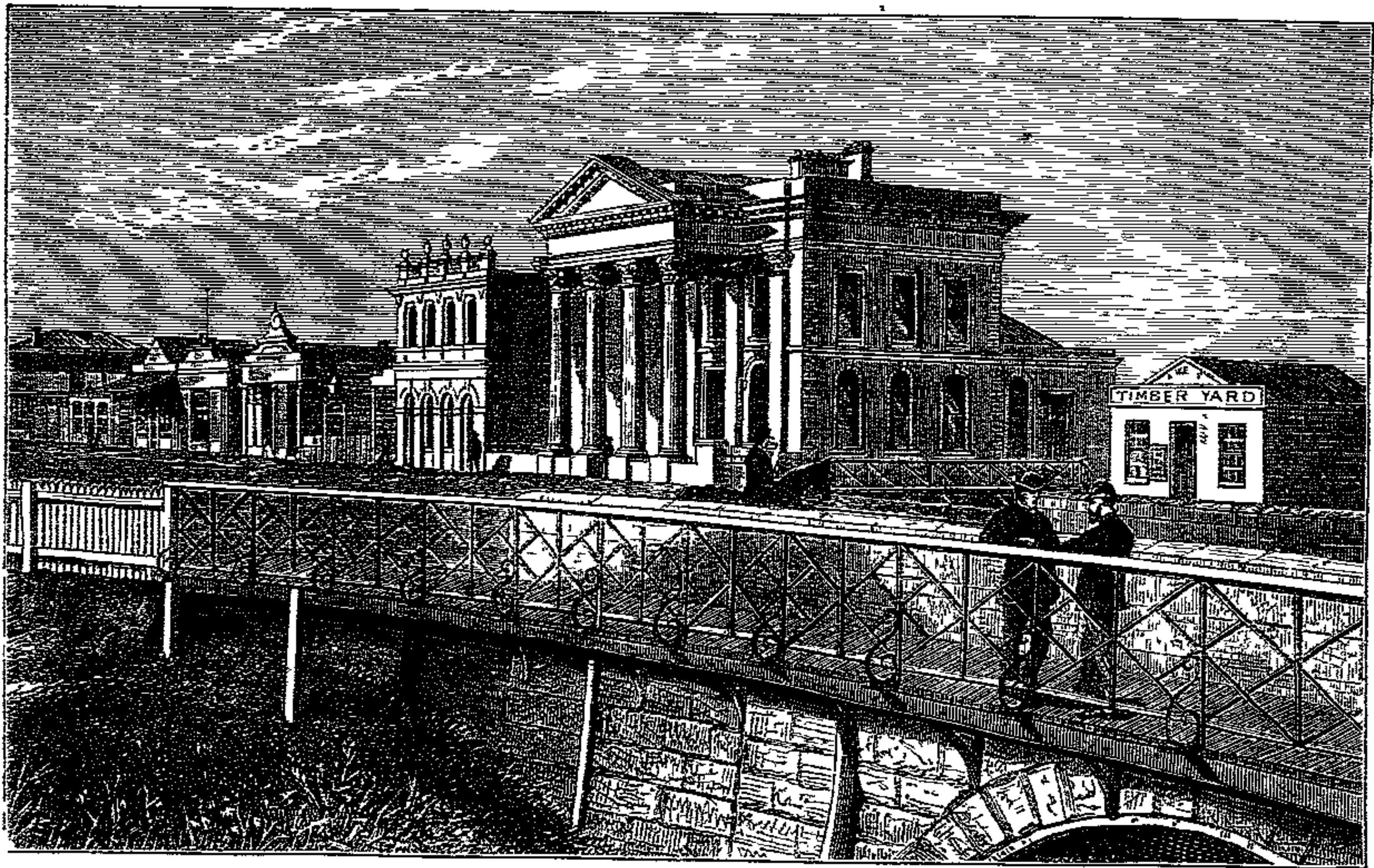
TABLE showing the Comparison between CRIMINAL CONVICTIONS and CONVICTIONS for DRUNKENNESS, for each Province in New Zealand, in the Years 1858 and 1871; with the Proportions of each to the Population of the several Periods.

PROVINCE.	1858.				1871.			
	Offences.		Drunkenness.		Offences.		Drunkenness.	
	No.	Proportion to Population.	No.	Proportion to Population.	No.	Proportion to Population.	No.	Proportion to Population.
Auckland ...	229	1 in 79	787	1 in 25	1,758	1 in 35	1,940	1 in 32
Taranaki ..	41	1 „ 65	35	1 „ 75	93	1 „ 48	86	1 „ 124
Wellington ..	198	1 „ 59	373	1 „ 32	527	1 „ 46	883	1 „ 68
Hawke's Bay ..	28	1 „ 60	...	...	81	1 „ 75	95	1 „ 64
Nelson ...	200	1 „ 46	57	1 „ 168	410	1 „ 54*	108	1 „ 114
Marlborough					77	1 „ 68	53	1 „ 99
Canterbury	267	1 „ 84	185	1 „ 48	1,484	1 „ 33†	454	1 „ 108
Westland ..					573	1 „ 27	277	1 „ 55
Otago ...	273	1 „ 25	81	1 „ 224	2,024	1 „ 34	1,246	1 „ 56
Totals ..	1,281	1 „ 48	1,418	1 „ 42	6,986	1 „ 38	4,682	1 „ 57

N.B.—For the year 1871 the numbers given in the census are taken, as that is the latest detailed account showing the population of the different Provinces. The results are not strictly accurate, as the same numbers give the total proportion of offences to population as 1 in 37, instead of 1 in 38, as given above, the latter being the true proportion to the estimated population at the end of the year.

\* The proportions for Nelson and Marlborough, taken together, are—offences, 1 in 50; drunkenness, 1 in 111.

† The proportions for Canterbury and Westland, taken together, are—offences, 1 in 31; drunkenness, 1 in 35.



COURT HOUSE, OAMARU, OTAGO





'There are no means at hand for comparing these results with similar ones in England, but apparently the convictions in the Superior Courts in New Zealand are more numerous (proportionately) than those in England and Wales, the numbers there (in 1871) being 1 out of every 1,900 of the population, and in New Zealand, 1 out of every 1,648.

Other items usually included in statistical returns will appear in other sections of these papers.

It must be added that all the details here given apply exclusively to the European population, with the few half-castes living among them. No accurate and complete census of the Native race has ever been made, though it has been partially done more than once. The numbers were estimated in 1842-43, by the Bishop of New Zealand, as about 100,000; but those who knew the Natives more intimately, thought that 70,000 would have been more nearly correct. The last attempt at enumeration made them about 36,000, but this was several years ago, and it is probable that their numbers at present do not exceed 30,000.

#### COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL.

The imports and exports of the Colony afford the readiest mode for estimating its commercial position, while the comparison of amounts at different periods has a special interest as showing the growth and development of various industrial pursuits, and the decay or extinction of others that were once of considerable importance.

In the year 1872 the imports were valued at £5,142,951, and the exports (of New Zealand produce) £5,107,186.

The value of the principal items of import in that year were, apparel, boots, shoes, hats, caps, &c., £415,970; drapery, haberdashery, and woollens, £889,922; ironmongery and iron, £190,634; spirits, £146,717; wine, £79,738; tea, £177,722; sugar and molasses, £384,180; tobacco and snuff, £77,474.

The principal items of export were, gold, valued at £1,730,992; wool, £2,537,919; grain and flour, £118,733; kauri gum, £154,167; *Phormium* (New Zealand flax), £99,405; hides and tallow, £90,551; preserved meats, £161,840.

Oil and whalebone, which in the early days of the Colony were regarded as its staple product, had become too insignificant to mention; while gold constituted more than one-third of the exports, and wool more than one-half. Flax had scarcely increased in proportion to the population, and timber

had become a very small item; but grain and other agricultural produce had become considerable. The item "preserved meats" indicates a new industry, and the same may be said of leather, of which there was exported to the United Kingdom nearly 3,000 cwt. Of the whole, the item kauri gum is the only one whose production is due to the aboriginal natives, and to this they are stimulated by the presence of European purchasers. Among the imports, the altered condition of the people and the country is indicated by the importation of coals to the value of £162,549; machinery valued at £62,794; and railway and telegraph materials valued respectively at £118,319 and £6,466.

The shipping return for the year was as follows:—

Ships inwards	...	...	775
Aggregate burden	..	300,302 tons	
Aggregate crews	...	13,866 men	
Ships outwards	...	...	743
Aggregate burden...	...	285,866 tons	
Aggregate crews	...	12,802 men	

Customs duty received in year, £813,278; land revenue (exclusive of gold), £504,717; gold fields revenue and gold duty, £114,055.

The proportions per head of population were:—

	£.	s.	d.
Imports, per head	..	18	8 0
Exports, per head	..	18	5 0
Customs' duty, per head	..	2	18 0
Land revenue, per head...	..	1	16 0
Gold duty, &c., per head	..	0	8 0

The following table shows, for the sake of contrast, the respective amounts for the years 1846 and 1872:—

	1846.	1872.
Imports ... ..	£155,475	£5,142,951
Ditto per head of population ... ..	£10. 16s.	£18. 8s.
Exports ... ..	£82,656	£5,107,186
Ditto per head of population ... ..	£5. 16s.	£18. 5s.
Shipping—inwards	160	775
Shipping—outwards	157	743
Customs' duty ... ..	£18,658	£813,278
Ditto per head of population ... ..	£1. 6s.	£2. 18s.
Land revenue ... ..	£616	£504,717
Ditto per head of population ... ..	10d.	£1. 16s.
Gold duty and revenue ... ..	...	£114,055
Ditto per head of population ... ..	...	8s.

The item "gold" appears so conspicuously in the returns of 1872, and is in itself of such importance, as to claim more than a mere passing notice.

The first time in which gold was regarded as of sufficient consequence to deserve to appear in a separate table in the annual returns of the Registrar-General was in 1858, in which year the value of the gold exported was declared to be £52,444, and it was also stated that gold to the value of £40,442 had been exported in the previous year, of which about £40,000 was the produce of New Zealand. In 1861 the value suddenly increased from £17,585 (the amount for 1860), to £752,657, the large increase being entirely due to Otago, which exported gold to the value of £727,321, or within one-thirtieth part of the whole amount.

The jurors' report on the Otago Exhibition of 1865 gives an account of the discoveries of gold in New Zealand to that date, and from it the following particulars are extracted:—It is there stated that gold was first found in Massacre Bay by an exploring party under Captain Wakefield, in 1842, "but the discovery did not attract much attention at the time." Nothing further seems to have been done until 1852, when gold was discovered at Coromandel, but only about 1,100 ounces were obtained, and the search was given up. In 1856 gold was found in several localities in Otago, but without any immediate result. In the same year gold was again discovered in Massacre Bay, and about a thousand persons soon collected there, who worked with some success, obtaining the gold that has been mentioned as exported in 1857. Discoveries were also made in that and the succeeding years in Otago, yet public attention does not seem to have been aroused until June, 1861, when Mr. Gabriel Reed made the great discovery of gold in one of the tributaries of the Tuapeka River, flowing through the ravine that is still called Gabriel's Gully, after the name of its discoverer. From that time discoveries of gold were made in various places in Otago, also on the west coast of the Province of Canterbury (now Westland), and finally at the Thames, in the Province of Auckland, the result of all which has been that there had been exported from New Zealand to the end of 1872 the enormous quantity of 6,718,248 ounces, valued at £26,084,260.

The increase in the quantity of wool exported from the Colony is also very striking. In twenty years, that is to say from 1853 to 1872, the quantity increased from 1,071,340 lb., valued at £66,507, to 41,886,997 lb., valued at £2,537,919. New Zealand now stands third on the list of the wool-producing colonies from which the

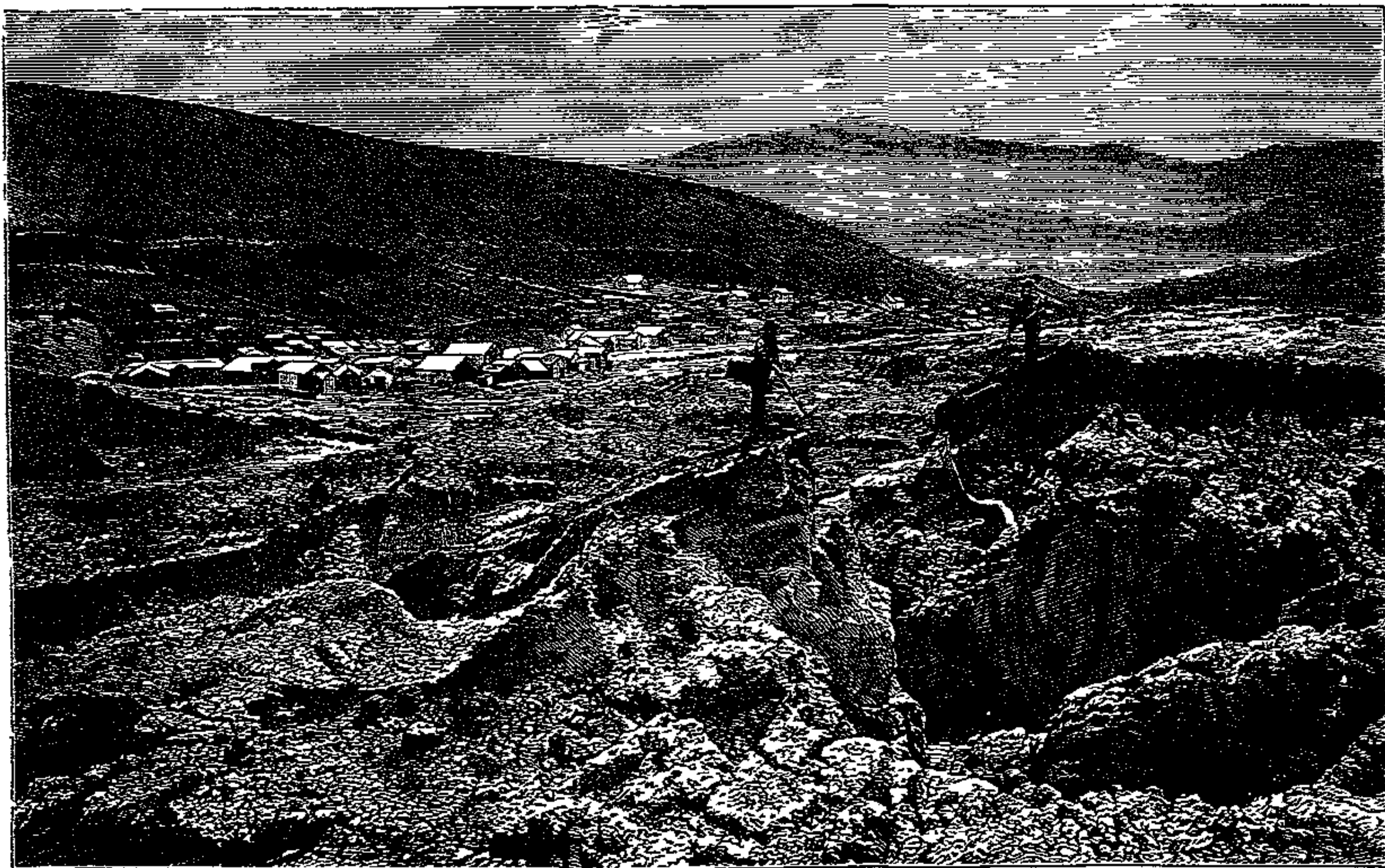
United Kingdom draws so large a proportion of its supplies of the raw material for one of its principal manufactures. The largest quantity is sent from Victoria, the next largest from New South Wales, and New Zealand follows as the third. Other remarks on this subject will be found when the increase of stock of all kinds is spoken of.

The recent years have also witnessed a marked development of industrial pursuits, both in the way of joint-stock companies and private enterprise. Since the passing of the Joint Stock Companies Act, in 1860, each year has seen various companies "floated," but principally for gold-mining purposes or processes connected therewith. There were also steam-shipping companies, gas companies, saw-mill companies, and one insurance company, whose operations are still very extensive. Besides these, there was a woollen factory in Nelson, and many local companies in various parts of the Colony for working flax, erecting public buildings, and other objects of local interest, besides two or three companies for preserving meat, the works of at least two of which were on a very extensive scale. The last census has shown that at the close of the year 1870, there were in operation 77 mills for grinding and dressing corn, 161 flax-mills, 109 saw-mills (including, in many cases, sash, door, planing, and moulding works), 69 breweries, 22 boiling-down and meat-preserving works, 3 brick and tile yards and potteries, 49 follmongeries, tanneries, &c., 21 malt-kilns, 38 collieries, 16 iron and brass foundries, and 191 factories for various other purposes. These mills and other works and factories employed 7,177 hands, of whom 129 were females. 116 of the mills were wrought by steam, of the aggregate power of about 2,500 horses, and 178 steam-engines, of a power exceeding that of 3,000 horses, were employed in the various factories, besides 92 steam, 17 water, and 470 horse thrashing-machines; 736 reaping-machines, 12 steam-ploughs, and 28 steam-harrows. The annual production of butter was 5,199,072 lb.; and of cheese, 2,547,507 lb.

There were also 28 societies established under the Land and Building Societies Acts in operation in the Colony at the time of the census, with an aggregate of 4,659 members, paying monthly contributions that amounted on the average to £12,937. 3s.

The following tables, which were appended to the financial statement of the Hon. the Colonial Treasurer for 1873, will show the relative circumstances of Victoria, New





GOLD QUARTZ MINING, OTAGO.





South Wales, and New Zealand, as respects flax, exported from each respectively, for their imports and exports, and also the relative values of gold, wool, grain, timber, and 1871 :—

TABLE showing the Total Value of IMPORTS and EXPORTS of VICTORIA, NEW SOUTH WALES, and NEW ZEALAND, for the Six Years ending 31st December, 1871; with the Rate per Head of Population.

					POPULATION.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.				
						Value.	Rate.		Value.	Rate.			
VICTORIA.						£.	£.	s.	d.	£.	£.	s.	d.
Year	1866	...	...	...	648,912	11,315,688	17	11	5	9,433,478	14	13	0
"	1867	...	...	...	659,887	8,921,986	13	7	4	9,972,383	15	2	3
"	1868	...	...	...	681,316	9,424,565	18	15	6	11,697,893	17	2	0
"	1869	...	...	...	710,878	9,984,452	14	0	10	9,539,816	13	8	4
"	1870	...	...	...	724,725	9,089,067	12	10	9	9,103,323	12	1	1
"	1871	...	...	...	762,445	8,935,797	11	17	6	11,151,622	14	16	5
NEW SOUTH WALES.													
Year	1866	...	...	...	431,412	6,412,442	14	17	3	6,057,585	14	0	9
"	1867	...	...	...	447,020	4,553,594	10	3	5	4,834,505	10	16	0
"	1868	...	...	...	466,765	5,736,817	12	5	9	4,878,344	10	9	0
"	1869	...	...	...	485,356	6,334,888	13	1	0	7,875,577	16	4	6
"	1870	...	...	...	502,861	6,069,820	12	1	5	6,302,577	12	10	8
"	1871	...	...	...	519,182	7,577,014	14	12	0	8,048,426	15	10	0
NEW ZEALAND.													
Year	1866	...	...	...	208,082	5,657,601	27	2	3	4,396,100	21	1	4
"	1867	...	...	...	218,668	5,179,393	23	13	8	4,479,464	20	9	8
"	1868	...	...	...	226,618	4,825,312	21	5	10	4,268,762	18	16	9
"	1869	...	...	...	237,249	4,841,400	20	8	1	4,090,134	17	4	9
"	1870	...	...	...	248,400	4,360,941	17	11	1	4,544,682	18	5	11
"	1871	...	...	...	266,986	3,967,098	14	17	2	5,171,054	19	7	4

NEW ZEALAND, including Aboriginal Natives (36,000 in Number at present).

		£.	£. s. d.	£.	£. s. d.
Year 1866 ... ..	247,222	5,657,601	22 17 8	4,396,100	17 15 8
" 1867 ... ..	257,208	5,179,393	20 2 9	4,479,464	17 7 6
" 1868 ... ..	264,518	4,825,312	18 4 10	4,268,762	16 2 9
" 1869 ... ..	273,249	4,841,400	17 14 4	4,090,134	14 19 4
" 1870 ... ..	284,400	4,360,941	15 6 7	4,544,682	15 19 8
" 1871 ... ..	302,986	3,967,098	13 1 10	5,171,054	19 7 4

#### AVERAGE OF SIX YEARS.

		£.	£. s. d.	£.	£. s. d.
Victoria ... ..	696,027	9,611,917	18 16 2	10,149,743	14 11 8
New South Wales ... ..	475,532	6,114,096	12 17 2	6,382,836	13 6 4
New Zealand ... ..	234,434	4,805,291	20 9 11	4,491,699	19 8 2
Ditto including Natives	271,597	4,805,291	17 13 10	4,491,696	16 10 9

In this Table the British and Foreign Goods exported from each Colony has been deducted from both Imports and Exports, leaving as Imports the goods retained in the Colony, and for Exports the produce or manufactures of such Colony.

TABLE showing the value of GOLD, WOOL, GRAIN, and other AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE (including Flour, Butter, and Cheese), TIMBER, and FLAX, exported from the Colonies of VICTORIA, NEW SOUTH WALES and NEW ZEALAND, for the Five Years ending 31st December, 1871; with the Rate per Head of Population.

ARTICLES.	Victoria.			New South Wales.			New Zealand.		
	Value.	Rate.		Value.	Rate.		Value.	Rate.	
Year 1867.	£.	£.	s. d.	£.	£.	s. d.	£.	£.	s. d.
Gold ... ..	5,738,998	8	14 0	129,619	0	5 9	2,724,276	12	0 2
Wool ... ..	3,650,011	5	10 7	1,711,322	3	16 5	1,580,608	7	4 7
Agricultural Produce	122,972	0	8 7	198,916	0	8 10	37,532	0	8 5
Timber ... ..	2,960	0	0 1	17,541	0	0 10	19,105	0	1 5
Flax ... ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	4,256	0	0 5
Totals ... ..	9,515,536	14	8 8	2,057,398	4	11 10	4,862,777	19	10 0
Year 1868.									
Gold ... ..	6,629,465	9	13 9	125,298	0	5 4	2,492,721	11	0 0
Wool ... ..	4,567,182	6	13 5	1,879,751	4	0 6	1,516,548	6	18 10
Agricultural Produce	194,850	0	5 8	264,277	0	11 8	127,704	0	11 3
Timber ... ..	8,024	0	0 8	12,707	0	0 8	15,658	0	1 4
Flax ... ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	8,137	0	0 9
Totals ... ..	11,899,021	16	13 1	2,282,028	4	17 9	4,160,763	18	7 2
Year 1869.									
Gold ... ..	5,868,759	7	10 10	309,058	0	12 9	2,341,592	9	17 5
Wool ... ..	3,235,091	4	11 0	3,162,522	6	10 4	1,871,280	5	15 7
Agricultural Produce	58,988	0	1 8	296,562	0	12 2	142,307	0	12 0
Timber ... ..	7,552	0	0 2	28,159	0	0 10	22,888	0	1 10
Flax ... ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	45,245	0	8 10
Totals ... ..	8,665,385	12	3 8	3,791,296	7	16 1	3,922,712	13	10 8
Year 1870.									
Gold ... ..	4,891,781	6	15 0	386,930	0	15 4	2,163,910	8	14 3
Wool ... ..	3,119,899	4	6 1	2,741,141	5	0 0	1,703,944	6	17 2
Agricultural Produce	99,898	0	2 9	165,894	0	6 7	188,472	0	14 0
Timber ... ..	1,008	...	...	22,087	0	0 10	18,323	0	1 6
Flax ... ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	132,578	0	10 8
Totals ... ..	8,112,581	11	3 10	3,316,002	6	11 0	4,202,227	16	18 4
Year 1871.									
Gold ... ..	5,423,687	7	8 8	*910,825	1	18 5	2,788,368	10	8 10
Wool ... ..	4,287,011	5	17 6	4,748,160	9	2 11	1,606,144	6	0 8
Agricultural Produce	75,924	0	2 1	57,367	0	2 2	203,506	0	15 8
Timber ... ..	6,738	0	0 2	58,371	0	2 3	20,479	0	1 6
Flax ... ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	90,611	0	6 10
Totals ... ..	9,793,355	13	8 5	5,774,728	11	5 9	4,709,108	17	12 8
Average of 5 Years.									
Gold ... ..	5,609,537	7	19 10	372,344	0	15 8	2,502,173	10	8 10
Wool ... ..	3,771,959	5	7 5	2,848,579	5	19 10	1,555,695	6	9 10
Agricultural Produce	110,425	0	3 2	196,603	0	8 3	138,904	0	11 7
Timber ... ..	5,254	0	0 2	26,763	0	1 1	18,580	0	1 6
Flax ... ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	56,165	0	4 8
Totals ... ..	9,497,175	13	10 7	3,444,289	7	4 10	4,271,517	17	13 5

\* The amount of Gold Coin produced in the Mint in Sydney from Gold received from other Colonies has been deducted from the Total Export of Gold as shown in the Export Return of New South Wales.



The returns of land in occupation, and of the various kinds of stock held by the settlers, form perhaps the best test as to the actual settlement of the country. The unsettled state of titles to land derived from the Natives operated very prejudicially to the earlier settlers in Wellington, and the "Native difficulty" still stands in the way of the acquisition of land in the North Island; but much has been done to remedy this, and the returns show how eagerly land is sought after and purchased wherever it is available. The improved demand for wool, and its increased price, have also tended to foster the desire to purchase land; and, as an effect of this, large tracts of country which were formerly held as "runs" only, are now freeholds, and, in not a few instances, estates are held by individuals of an extent that would form no inconsiderable part of an English county. That this great increase in land purchases has been the result of a steady growth, may be shown by comparing the receipts for land sales for the last fifteen years (as given in the following table), and also by comparing the quantities stated in the returns of 1858, as compared with those given in the census of 1871:—

TABLE showing the REVENUE derived from SALES of LAND for each of the Years from 1858 to 1873, both inclusive:—

	£	s.	d.
Year ending Dec. 31, 1858...	147,539	9	2
Year ending Dec. 31, 1859...	223,564	3	8
Year ending Dec. 31, 1860...	195,447	1	3
Year ending Dec. 31, 1861...	284,727	1	6
Year ending Dec. 31, 1862 ..	508,171	12	10
Year ending Dec. 31, 1863...	381,568	13	0
Year ending Dec. 31, 1864...	593,222	0	10
Year ending Dec. 31, 1865...	330,423	16	2
Year ending Dec. 31, 1866...	522,626	6	2
Year ending Dec. 31, 1867...	276,690	7	6
Year ending Dec. 31, 1868 ..	173,215	0	4
Year ending Dec. 31, 1869 ..	115,587	3	4
Year ending Dec. 31, 1870...	80,109	16	8
Year ending Dec. 31, 1871 ..	118,633	12	10
Year ending Dec. 31, 1872 ..	381,363	1	8
Year ending Dec. 31, 1873...	1,038,310	13	4

Total for sixteen years £5,371,190 0 2

This shows an expenditure of nearly £335,700 per annum in the purchase of land from the Crown, so that even if the land averaged £1 per acre, there must have been an addition to the landed estate of the community of nearly 340,000 acres in each of sixteen consecutive years.

Comparing the quantities shown in the census of 1858 with that in the census of 1871, there were, at the first period, 235,561½ acres of land fenced, and 141,007½

acres under crop; and at the second, 6,778,773 acres fenced, and 1,042,042 acres under crop. The fenced land was thus nearly 29 times as much as it was thirteen years previously, and the land under crop nearly 7½ times. The proportions of the land to the population, by which it was held, had also largely increased; for in 1858 there were but 4 acres fenced, and 2½ acres under crop for each individual; while in 1871 there were nearly 26½ acres fenced and 4 acres under crop. The quantity of freehold land held by individuals was not shown in 1858; but in 1871 it was 5,647,838 acres, or about 22 acres for each individual. Supposing the number of houses to represent the number of families in the Colony, there would be, at the latter period, an average for each family of 98½ acres of freehold land; while, including freehold and leasehold lands, there were for each family 118 acres of land fenced, and 18½ acres under crop.

The high price of labour has tended to prevent grain from being cultivated to the extent it should be; but the introduction of agricultural machinery is doing something to remedy this, and the returns for 1873 show that there were 131,797 acres in wheat, 96,956 acres in oats, 15,266 acres in barley, besides 12,623 acres in potatoes, 33,588 acres in hay, and 19,845 acres in other crops; while the expected crop of the year was 3,188,696 bushels of wheat, 325,101 bushels of barley, 2,618,085 bushels of oats, and 62,125 tons of potatoes. The great advantages of soil and climate possessed by the Colony are thus being turned to account, and it may be expected that grain and flour will yet figure largely among articles of export.

The increase of stock of all kinds is equally remarkable. Horses, cattle, and sheep were among the earliest imports to the Colony; and in the year 1851 it is stated that there were therein 2,890 horses, 34,787 head of cattle, and 233,043 sheep. In 1858, these had increased to 14,912 horses, 137,188 head of cattle, and 1,523,316 sheep; but in 1871, the numbers were 81,028 horses, 436,592 head of cattle, and 9,700,629 sheep. Thus, in thirteen years (or, indeed, in little more than twelve, as the census of 1871 was taken in February of that year,) the horses had increased more than five times, the cattle four times, and the sheep six times. Of the wool which the sheep produced, it may be observed that in 1858 the Registrar-General called attention to the great increase that had taken place from an export valued at £60,508 in 1853, to an export of £254,025 in 1858, the value having thus been nearly

quadrupled in five years. In 1871 the value of the wool exported was £1,606,144, being more than six times the amount in 1858. The actual increase in quantity was much greater than is indicated by the value; for in 1858 wool was valued at an average rate of 1s. 4d. per lb., and in 1871 at less than 10½d. Thus, while the value had increased sixfold, the quantity had increased nearly tenfold. In the eighteen years between 1853 and 1871, the value of wool exported increased twenty-four-fold, and the quantity thirty-five-fold, the average value in 1853 having been estimated at nearly 1s. 3d. per lb.

The collieries are as yet in their infancy; but promise to be of the greatest value before long. Railroads and other means of transit are being provided, and it is highly probable that within a short time New Zealand may be exporting coal, instead of expending (as already stated) £162,549 during one year for importing it. Besides this, the immense stores of iron and other metals which the Colony possesses, will all become available as fuel is provided for reducing them to a metallic state, and thus making them fit for the many purposes for which at present they have to be imported.

Out of the population of the country, 68,918 persons—or more than one-fourth of the whole—were described in that census as being engaged in trade, commerce, manufactures, agricultural pursuits, or mining; or as being mechanics, artificers, and skilled workmen; besides 14,312 persons described as labourers. There were also 594 males and 743 females engaged as teachers.

These notices of the industrial and commercial statistics of the Colony would be incomplete without they included some statements relative to the banking establishments that are doing business therein, especially as returns are published every quarter, in a form prescribed by law, showing their assets and liabilities so classified that the details become as useful for statistical purposes as any of the returns of the census.

In 1858, when the Act was passed requiring returns to be sent to the Treasury for publication, there were but two banks that had branches in New Zealand, and one of these had only recently entered the field. The bank that first established itself in the Colony was the Union Bank of Australia,\* which sent out a manager to Wellington, and formed a local directory there, imme-

diately after the arrival of the first settlers. It also sent out a portentous-looking iron safe containing its cash, but it is popularly believed that the amount of money which that safe contained, and which it must be assumed was all that the bank thought necessary to send to commence business with, was the very modest sum of £500! About eighteen years after this, in December, 1858, when the first returns were published, the banks held £187,257 in coin, £2,624 in bullion, and £1,772 in securities of the Colonial Government, while they had notes in circulation to the amount of £80,026. At the same time they had received and held Government deposits amounting to £74,244, other deposits not bearing interest amounting to £179,264, and deposits bearing interest amounting to £227,759. On the other hand, they had discounted bills and notes to the extent of £520,702, and had advanced money in various ways to the extent of £114,539. Their total liabilities at this date were £600,507. 0s. 7d., and their assets £848,955. 16s. 1d.

These figures show that the banks had found a much wider scope for their operations than had been anticipated when the Union Bank commenced; but from this date the expansion of their business went on with marvellous rapidity, until the date of the last returns published (that of September, 1873), at which time the population of the Colony may be estimated as being about five times as large as it was in 1858. The number of banks had increased to five,\* with branches and agencies scattered all over the country, two of them having been formed in or for the Colony, and having to a large extent a local proprietary. The five banks held among them coin amounting to £1,344,799, bullion £252,980, and Colonial Government securities £157,000. Their notes in circulation were £701,439; they held Government deposits amounting to £990,244; other deposits not bearing interest, £2,431,782; and deposits bearing interest, £1,411,916. They had discounted bills and notes to the amount of £2,216,896, and had made other advances to the extent of £3,207,857. Their total assets were £7,763,746. 1s. 11d.; and their total liabilities, £5,745,348. 16s. 3d. Thus their assets were more than nine times greater than they were fifteen years before, and their liabilities about nine-and-a-half times greater. The following table will show this more distinctly:—

\* A bank was started in Kororarika about the same time, but it did not do much, and is believed to have collapsed at a very early date.

\* The return shows the names of six, but one was in process of being absorbed in another that had purchased its business.

TABLE showing the TOTAL ASSETS and LIABILITIES of the BANKS in the COLONY of NEW ZEALAND, in the Form prescribed by "The Bankers' Returns Act, 1858," for the Quarters ending respectively on the 31st of December, 1858, and the 30th of September, 1873.

*Assets.*

	December, 1858.			September, 1873.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Coined gold and silver and other coined metals	187,257	0	10	1,374,799	2	9
Gold and silver in bullion or bars ... ..	2,623	14	1	252,980	0	10
Notes and bills of other banks ... ..	7,987	14	10	29,417	9	2
Balances due from other banks ... ..	...	...	...	290,087	1	10
Landed property ... ..	14,073	16	10	144,103	19	10
Notes and bills discounted ... ..	520,702	6	3	2,216,896	2	5
Colonial Government securities ... ..	1,772	7	1	157,600	0	0
Debts due to the banks ... ..	69,570	10	6	2,817,162	11	8
Securities not included under other heads ...	44,968	5	8	480,694	13	5
Totals ... ..	848,955	16	1	7,763,746	1	11

*Liabilities.*

Notes in circulation ... ..	86,026	2	3	701,438	15	10
Bills in circulation ... ..	83,212	19	6	40,639	17	0
Balances due to other banks ... ..	...	...	...	169,327	9	8
Government deposits ... ..	74,244	6	7	990,244	0	1
Deposits not bearing interest ... ..	179,264	7	2	2,491,782	5	7
Deposits bearing interest ... ..	227,759	5	1	1,411,916	7	1
Totals ... ..	600,507	0	7	5,745,348	15	8

The significance of these figures will become more apparent by observing some of the facts which they disclose. Thus the indebtedness of the community to the banks is shown to have increased from £635,241. 2s. 5d. to £5,514,753. 7s. 6d., or nearly ninefold, but the indebtedness of the banks to the Government and the public for notes in circulation and deposits had increased from £567,294. 1s. 1d. to £5,535,381. 8s. 7d., or almost tenfold. Putting these facts into another form, it may be said that in 1858 the banks had advanced to their customers £67,947. 1s. 4d. out of their own capital, but in 1873, the whole of their advances did not equal their notes in circulation, and the money of the public deposited with them, by the sum of £20,628. 1s. 1d. This is a fact of great importance, as it shows that, so far as the banks are concerned, the whole business of the Colony is being carried on by means of its own capital, and not by borrowed money. It is also noticeable that the amount of the notes of the banks in circulation considerably exceeds that of the floating (or unfunded) debt of the Colony. Possibly

some day the Colony that has the ultimate liability in respect to this note-circulation, may claim to have the profit also.

The rate of interest on advances has been materially reduced within the last two or three years. Until then, 10 per cent. was the ordinary, or it might be said the minimum, rate, for much higher rates were often paid, the single exception being that interest added to accounts by the Supreme Court was fixed at 8 per cent. The rate of discount at the banks was nominally 10 per cent., but really 11 and 1-9th per cent., as 10 per cent. interest was deducted from the amount of the bill. Bank discount has since been reduced as low as 5 per cent. (although it has again risen to 6 per cent.), and advances on real property are freely made at 7 per cent., and even 6 per cent. has been taken in exceptional cases. This has permitted many things to be undertaken that would have been impracticable previously, while the public burdens have been lightened through the advantageous rates at which money has been raised.

The reduction in the rate of interest has operated most beneficially to all who are



engaged in agricultural and pastoral pursuits. To a very large extent these are being carried on by means of money borrowed for purchases or improvements, and while even a high rate of interest becomes (in effect) only a moderate rent, when the interest is reduced, the borrower is enabled, without extra effort, to reduce the principal, and thus in a comparatively short time he may be relieved of the whole burden.

In closing these brief notices, it must be repeated that while so large a portion of the land remains unoccupied, and the population is so sparse that there is scarcely one person—man, woman, or child—for every 160 acres of the estimated amount of land suitable for agricultural or pastoral purposes, it is strictly correct to regard all

that has been done as only preparative, so that the statist who shall "take stock" of the progress of the next twenty, or even ten, years, will scarcely regard the present as a fair starting-point. The opening of the country by roads and railways, the establishment of factories in which the raw material produced in the Colony may be converted into articles that are now imported from abroad, and the impetus that these again give to the increase of population, will all so act and re-act upon each other—population causing production, and production stimulating the growth of population—that steps in advance will be made with a rapidity that will be scarcely credible when they become facts, and to anticipate which would seem to many to be mere idle dreaming.

## LATEST STATISTICS.

### THE CENSUS ON MARCH 1st, 1874.

THE population of the Colony (exclusive of aboriginal Natives) on the night of the 1st March, 1874, was as follows:—

Province of Auckland	...	...	67,315
" of Taranaki	...	...	5,819
" of Wellington	...	...	29,730
" of Hawke's Bay	...	...	9,218
" of Nelson	...	...	22,500
" of Marlborough	...	...	6,143
" of Canterbury	...	...	59,770
" of Westland	...	...	14,815
" of Otago	...	...	85,092
			<hr/> 200,512
Chatham Islands, estimated for			
31st December, 1873, as no			
census returns have as yet			
been received	...	...	112
			<hr/> 200,624

Being an increase, since the census of February, 1871, of 43,291, or 16.88 per cent. on the population of 1871. The above numbers cannot be considered as absolutely correct, as the compilation from the Household Schedules is only in progress. No material alteration is anticipated.

It is not yet possible to tell what proportion the males bear to the females. In 1871, however, the proportion was 100 males to 71.2 females.

The total deaths in New Zealand during the year 1873 were 3,645, with an estimated mean population for the year of 287,753. This gives a death-rate of 12.66 per 1,000 persons living. The mean death-rate of England for a period of 30 years, viz., from 1838 to 1868, was 22.40 per 1,000 persons

living. Although the death-rate is apparently so much lower than in England, yet some allowance must be made for the fact that the immigration to New Zealand has chiefly consisted of persons not past the prime of life, and that, therefore, the proportion of aged people is not so great as it is in England.

In the census of 1861 the proportion of persons, in England and Wales, of 65 years of age and over, was 46.2 per 1,000 of the population.

In 1871, in New Zealand, the proportion of persons of 65 years of age and over was 10.7 per 1,000 of the population.

The following table shows the death rate of some of the Australian Colonies for the year 1872:—

New South Wales	...	12.58 per 1,000
Do., average of six years	...	15.40 "
Victoria	...	14.08 "
Tasmania	...	13.70 "
Queensland	...	14.80 "
South Australia	...	12.81 "
New Zealand	...	11.38 "

The European States average 1 death in 34 to 40 persons living.

Russia averages 1 in 50.

New Zealand averages 1 in 90.

In the month of February, 1873, the number of acres in grain crop was as follows:—

	Acres.	Estimated Produce: Bushels.	Average No. of Bushels per Acre.
Wheat	131,707	3,189,000	24
Oats	100,058	2,014,045	27
Barley	15,200	325,101	21½

Estimating the wheat at 5s. per bushel, the wheat crop in 1873 was worth £797,174.

The number of acres under these several crops in the various Provinces, in February, 1873, and the corresponding number of acres of the same crops in February, 1874, so far as at present ascertainable, is given :—

Province.	1873.	1874.
Auckland	5,135	5,190
Taranaki	1,428	1,337
Wellington	4,318	4,750
Hawke's Bay	1,430	1,193
Nelson	6,302	6,888
Marlborough	5,217	5,470
Canterbury	112,446	120,009
Westland	13	9½
Otago	107,873	119,163

The total number of acres under these grain crops in 1873, was 244,021, and in 1874 was 264,014½.

The following figures give the estimated average yield per acre of the grain crops mentioned, in the various Provinces in 1873 :—

	Wheat.	Oats.	Barley.
Auckland, bushels	18½	18½	17½
Taranaki	19½	18	14½
Wellington	18	20	16
Hawke's Bay	25½	20	24½
Nelson	13	17	11½
Marlborough	17	20½	18
Canterbury	21½	21	10½
Westland	—	18	—
Otago	20½	30½	20½

The average yield of wheat per acre in the undermentioned Australian Colonies was :—

	Bushels.
In New South Wales, 1873...	16'32
" Victoria, 1872	13'45
" South Australia, 1873	11'50
" Tasmania, 1873	18'62
New Zealand average, 1873	24'10

The average yield of wheat for the United States for 1872 was 12 bushels per acre.

The amount of land in permanent artificial grasses in the month of February of the years 1873 and 1874 respectively, was as follows :—

	1873.	1874.
Auckland	108,427	214,600½
Taranaki	50,640	41,068
Wellington	250,211	270,679
Hawke's Bay	79,504	116,366
Nelson	38,735	48,650
Marlborough	—	20,308
Canterbury	195,420	245,518
Westland	1,957	2,121½
Otago	170,959	227,985

The returns of Marlborough for 1873 are not given, as inquiry recently made shows that much hill land, on which some grass seed had been scattered, was returned last year as land in artificial grass. As the returns this year are more reliable, the comparison between the two years cannot fairly be made.

The above figures only refer to land laid down to artificial grasses, and do not include the extensive tracts of country covered with native grasses, and on which a large number of stock is depasturing.

The account of the stock is only taken at the time of the census, and cannot yet be given for this year. In February, 1871, the numbers of sheep, cattle, and horses in the Colony (exclusive of stock belonging to aboriginal Natives) were respectively :—

Sheep	9,683,951
Cattle	435,877
Horses	80,477

TABLE showing the Mean Temperature, Maximum, and Minimum, of the Atmosphere in the Shade, also the Total Rainfall registered, for the Year 1872, at the under-mentioned Places :—

	Temperature of Air in Shade.			Mean Daily Range.	Total Rainfall.
	Mean.	Maximum recorded.	Minimum recorded.		
	Fah.	Fah.	Fah.	Fah.	Inches.
Mongonui	62.9	91.0 on 20 Jan.	35.0 on 27 June	15.0	46.900
Auckland	60.2	90.4 on 3 Feb.	34.0 on 10 July	13.9	42.096
Taranaki	58.4	83.4 on 31 Dec.	31.0 on 5 Aug.	17.0	63.640
Napier	59.7	94.0 on 6 Feb.	80.0 on 16 Aug.	17.0	23.940
Wanganui	56.7	88.0 on 21 Feb.	30.0 on 16 Aug.	16.6	38.120
Wellington	55.8	89.0 on 22 Dec.	31.5 on 16 June	11.6	50.945
Nelson	56.7	90.0 on 24 Jan.	25.0 on 27 July	20.9	78.610
Christchurch	53.6	95.7 on 24 Jan.	21.5 on 16 June	15.0	19.741
Hokitika	54.1	82.4 on 21 Feb.	27.4 on 15 Aug.	12.0	128.210
Dunedin	51.4	88.0 on 28 Jan.	27.0 on 15 Aug.	14.7	27.898
Queenstown	51.4	83.2 on 31 Dec.	21.5 on 15 June	16.7	28.880
Southland	49.6	85.0 on 18 Jan.	17.0 on 14 June	18.7	

AVERAGE RATE OF WAGES IN THE SEVERAL PROVINCES IN 1873.

	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Wellington.	Hawke's Bay.	Marlborough.	Westland.	Nelson.	Canterbury.	Otago.
Farm Labourers ... ..	6s. 6d. per day	20s. per wk. with board	35s. per wk. with board	25s. per wk. with board	25s. per wk. with board	£60 per an. with board	25s. per wk. with board	18s. to 22s. with board	22s. to 35s. with board
Reapers ... ..	17s. per acre	8s. per day, with board	10s. per day, with board	10s. per day, with board	40s. per wk. with board	...	40s. per wk. with board	20s. to 25s. per wk., with bd.	55s. per week, with board
Female Farm Servants, per week, with board...	10s.	5s. to 10s.	13s. to 15s.	...	...	£52 per an.	£28 per an.	10s. to 12s.	20s. to 30s.
Shepherds, per annum, with board	£35	...	£52 to £60	£30	30s. per wk.	...	£55 per an.	£50 to £60	£55 to £80
Stock Keepers, ditto	£35	...	£52 to £60	£50 to £60	...	...	£55 per an.	£50 to £60	£65
Station Labourers, ditto	£30	...	£52 to £60	£50 to £60	25s. per wk.	...	£55 per an.	£45 to £52	£50 to £55
Masons, per day, without board	11s. 6d.	8s. to 9s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	20s.	9s.	12s.	12s. to 15s.
Bricklayers, ditto	10s. 6d.	8s. to 9s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	20s.	9s.	10s. to 12s.	12s. to 16s.
Carpenters, ditto	10s. 6d.	8s. to 9s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	...	8s.	9s. to 11s.	12s. to 14s.
Shipwrights, ditto	12s.	...	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	...	9s.	...	...
Smiths, ditto	10s. 6d.	10s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	9s.	9s. to 10s.	12s.
Wheelwrights, ditto	10s.	8s. to 9s.	9s. to 15s.	10s. to 12s.	10s. to 12s.	16s.	9s.	10s. to 11s.	12s. to 14s.
Servants, Married Couples, without family, with board	£62	£60	£60 to £80	£65 to £75	£80	...	£80	£60 to £70	£60 to £100
Grooms, per week	45s., without bd.	...	20s., with board	20s. to 25s., with board	20s. to 25s., with board	£130 per an. with board	20s., with board	£45 to £50 an.	30s., with board
Gardeners ... ..	21s. per wk. with board	8s. per day, without bd.	22s. per wk. with board	25s. to 30s., with board	20s. to 25s., with board	14s. per day, with board	8s. per day, without board	£50 to £60	8s. to 10s. day, without board
Female Cooks, per week, with board	15s.	25s.	12s. to 20s.	12s. to 14s.	25s.	30s. to 35s.	£35 per an.	£30 to £35 an.	30s. per week
Laundresses, per week, with board	13s.	25s.	10s. to 15s.	12s.	...	20s. to 25s.	£35 per an.	£25 to £30 an.	...
Female House Servants, per week, with board...	10s.	£30 per an.	10s. to 15s.	10s. to 12s.	15s. to 20s.	16s. to 20s.	£28 per an.	£20 to £25 per annum.	£30 to £55 per annum
Needlewomen, per week, with board	15s.	15s.	15s. to 18s.	...	21s. per wk.	5s. to 6s. 9 day, without board	4s. per day, without board	£25 per an.	18s. to 30s., with board
General Labourers, per day, without board	7s.	5s. to 6s.	7s. to 8s.	8s.	8s.	10s. to 12s.	6s.	7s. to 8s.	8s. to 11s.
Seamen, per month, with board	£5 10s.	...	£5	£6	£3 10s. to £7	£6 to £8	£7	£5 to £7	£5 to £8
Miners, per day, without board	7s. 6d.	...	...	...	10s.	12s.	12s.	8s.	10s.
Dressmakers, without board	25s. per wk.	3s. per day	...	...	...	30s. to 35s. wk.	...	...	...
Storekeepers & Drapers' Assistants	£3 per wk. without bd.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50s. to 60s. per week, without board
Engine Drivers	£2 15s.	...	...	...	...	10s. to 12s.	...	...	15s. per day.
Bushmen	25s. per wk. with board.	...	...	...	10s., without bd.	per day.	...	...	...



TABLE showing the Average Prices of PROVISIONS and LIVE STOCK in New Zealand in the Year 1873.

	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Wellington.	Hawke's Bay.	Nelson.	Westland.	Marlborough.	Canterbury.	Otago.	Southland.*
Beer, per hhd. ...	£ 5 0 0	£ 7 0 0	£ 6 0 0	£ 7 10 0	£ 5 0 0	£ 5 10 0	£ 5 0 0	£ 8 10 0	£ 9 0 0	£ 6 0 0
Brandy, per gal. ...	1 2 0	1 4 0	1 2 6	1 5 0	1 3 0	1 1 0	1 1 6	1 3 0	1 1 0	1 4 0
Bread, wheaten, per lb. ...	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 1¾	0 0 2½	0 0 2	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2	0 0 1½	0 0 2½
Butter, fresh, per lb. ...	0 1 2	0 0 10	0 0 7½	0 1 6	0 0 10	0 1 0	0 1 2	0 0 8	0 1 0	0 1 0½
Butter, salt, per lb. ...	0 0 10	0 0 7	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 0 7	0 0 9	0 0 10	0 0 8	0 1 1	0 0 11
Cheese, per lb. ...	0 0 9	0 0 10	0 0 6½	0 0 10	0 0 7½	0 0 7	0 0 9	0 0 8	0 0 6	0 0 9
Coffee, per lb. ...	0 1 8	0 1 10	0 1 6	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 5	0 1 6	0 1 10	0 1 6	0 1 7
Flour, per 196 lb. ...	1 12 0	1 9 0	1 7 0	1 12 0	1 10 0	1 8 0	1 4 6	1 5 0	1 4 0	1 1 6
Grain—Wheat, per imperial bushel ...	0 6 0	0 5 0	0 5 6	0 5 0	0 7 0	0 5 3	0 5 0	0 4 6	0 5 6	0 4 6
Live Stock—Cattle (horned) per head ...	9 0 0	6 0 0	£4 to £10	50s. to £10	9 0 0	7 0 0	6 10 0	£3 to £6	£5 to £10	6 0 0
Goats, per head ...	0 5 0	1 0 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 14 0	0 0 0	0 5 0	£20 to £40	1 0 0	0 10 0
Horses, per head ...	18 0 0	0 0 0	£2 10s. to £35	30s. to £30	20 0 0	£15 to £50	20 0 0	£20 to £40	£10 to £100	£10 to £40
Sheep, per head ...	0 19 0	0 14 0	8s. to 12s.	4s. to 20s.	0 10 0	0 11 6	0 5 0	4s. to 9s.	9s. to 12s.	0 9 6
Swine, per head ...	1 5 0	0 15 0	2½d. to 3½d. 7 lb. dead	per lb. 4d.	2 5 0	...	0 0 0	15s. to 40s.	4s. to 6s.	5d. per lb.
Meat—Beef, per lb. ...	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 6	0 0 7	0 0 4½	1½d. to 4d.	0 0 3½	4d. to 6d.
Mutton, per lb. ...	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 4½	0 0 5	0 0 3½	2d. to 3d.	0 0 3	3d. to 6d.
Pork, per lb. ...	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 6½	0 0 6	0 0 7	0 0 7	0 0 5½	0 0 6	0 0 3	0 0 5½
Milk, per quart ...	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 5	0 0 4	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 3	0 0 4
Rice, per lb. ...	0 0 3	0 0 4	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 2	0 0 4
Salt, per lb. ...	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1½	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 0½	0 0 1½
Sugar, per lb. ...	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 5	0 0 5	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 5½	0 0 6	4d. to 6d.	0 0 5½
Tea, per lb. ...	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 2 3	0 2 9	0 3 3	0 2 9	0 2 6	0 3 6	3s. to 3s. 6d.	3s. to 3s. 6d.
Tobacco, per lb. ...	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 6	0 5 0	0 4 6	...	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 4 6	0 4 9
Wine, per gallon ...	0 15 0	0 14 0	0 14 0	1 0 0	0 18 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	1 10 0	0 12 0	13s. to 23s.

\* District of Otago.

## CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1873.

TABLE showing the CUSTOMS REVENUE at the

HEADS OF REVENUE.	Rates of Duty.	Auckland.	Thames.	Russell.	Mongonui.	Hokianga.	Tauranga.	Poverty Bay.	New Plymouth.	Wanganui.	Wellington.	Napier.	Wairarapa.	Pictou.
Spirits, per gal. ....	12s.	51419*	5502	1013	155	518	02	2005	3193	11241	21131	12740	2762	690
" New Zealand, per gal. ....	6s.	4803	102	20	...	40	...	207	101	61	170	201	...	...
Cigars and Snuff, per lb. ...	5s.	2880	488	...	...	...	...	43	...	181	1401	477	...	1
Tobacco, per lb. ....	2s. 6d.	21158	1621	177	417	052	40	585	000	2303	0618	4180	407	203
" Sheepwash, per lb. ...	9d.	88	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	53	74	15	18	...
Wine, per gallon ...	1s.	5366	416	51	...	53	...	106	204	1110	4030	1501	164	40
Ale, Beer, &c., in Bottle, per gal. ...	1s. 3d.	2100	134	1	...	...	...	60	25	276	2509	310	73	...
Ale, Beer, &c., in Wood, per gal. ....	1s.	610	18	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	67	...	...	...
Tea, per lb. ....	6d.	12357	207	17	6	0	...	100	340	1117	5370	1780	312	200
Coffee, Cocoa, &c., per lb. ...	3d.	1284	4	...	...	...	...	3	...	30	008	100	0	6
" Roasted, per lb. ...	5d.	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	4	...	...	...
Sugar and Molasses, per lb. ....	1d.	20501	455	32	70	11	13	300	086	1634	6093	2012	752	215
Firearms, each ....	5s.	27	4	1	...	...	...	3	1	0	25	6	...	...
Powder, Sporting, per lb. ....	6d.	198	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	50	7	...	...
Shot, per cwt. ....	10s.	185	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	7	50	20	...	...
Goods by Measurement, per cubic foot ....	5s.	12047	121	...	8	4	...	10	180	108	5000	1000	17	02
" " " " " "	3s.	2703	20	...	...	1	...	18	50	40	1004	202	0	2
" " " " " "	2s. 6d.	2078	8	...	...	...	...	...	30	30	1008	117	30	4
" " " " " "	2s.	555	0	...	...	...	...	0	18	05	430	120	...	...
" " " " " "	1s. 6d.	184	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	1	200	85	10	...
" " " " " "	1s.	1878	20	...	...	...	...	3	58	120	1108	121	11	8
" " " " " "	6d.	304	1	...	...	...	...	...	18	80	218	19	...	4
" " " " " "	3d.	113	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	10	101	11	7	...
Goods by Weight, per cwt. ....	5s.	55	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	1	20	...	...	...
" " " " " "	1s.	082	10	...	...	1	...	5	23	100	700	222	7	11
" " " " " "	3s. 6d.	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	0	...	...	4
" " " " " "	3s.	105	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	51	8	...	...
" " " " " "	2s.	545	...	...	...	...	...	...	11	31	200	20	2	2
" " " " " "	1s.	810	7	...	...	5	...	0	13	77	1081	280	41	2
Goods by Weight, per lb. ...	3d.	1437	8	...	...	...	...	...	0	145	502	101	19	...
" " " " " "	2d.	104	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	10	01	35	...	...
" " " " " "	1d.	9140	17	...	...	1	...	...	21	150	1812	163	20	5
" " " " " "	3d.	503	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	27	410	42	5	7
Goods by Weight, no rates given ....	...	3203	36	...	...	...	...	40	10	113	2038	401	50	14
Opium, per lb. ....	20s.	43	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	...
Ad valorem, per cent. ....	10	15783	320	1	...	...	20	285	451	1010	12825	4213	145	03
" " " " " "	5	47	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	07	...	...	...
Other Duties not specified above ....	...	12081	205	...	1	...	1	10	158	308	3704	806	114	25
Totals ....	...	104740	9095	1852	652	1331	115	4050	6005	21781	89600	92087	5000	1582
Totals of Customs Revenue in 1873 ....	...	172055	12080	1507	600	1860	No port.	No port	0280	17070	61083	25182	4017	1801

\* This includes 1,936 gallons, at 6s. per gallon, removed to

The Measurement Duties were abolished by "The Customs Tariff Act, 1873," which

CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT,

Wellington, 30th April, 1874.

## CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1873.

several Ports of NEW ZEALAND during the year 1873.

Havelock.	Kaikoura.	Nelson.	Westport.	Greymouth.	Hokitika.	Okarito.	Littleton and Christchurch.	Akaroa.	Timaru.	Oamaru.	Dunedin.	Invercargill and B. off.	Riverton.	Chatham Islands.	Totals in 1873.		Totals of Revenue in 1872.
															Quantities.	Revenue.	
£ 579	£ 530	£ 9508	£ 7258	£ 10557	£ 13182	£ 660	£ 30090	£ 181	£ 7370	£ 5055	£ 68152	£ 9071	£ 2100	£ ..	497088 gals.	*207072	£ 278532
...	...	68	141	802	202	...	726	20	140	80	11112	584	110	...	65920	19776	15517
...	...	460	400	1010	827	15	1431	...	120	53	4148	117	38	...	56541 lb.	14180	11804
102	147	8020	2182	4782	4002	160	10387	...	1582	1030	28021	2312	850	...	773502	90000	90702
...	...	4	...	...	...	...	30	...	...	14	7	...	...	...	20800	200	376
47	21	1481	723	2074	1205	72	0330	10	835	300	8770	866	103	...	181080 gals.	30216	33230
...	...	825	277	498	306	9	2006	...	115	46	8134	251	23	...	217280	13580	12863
...	...	83	8	30	...	...	547	...	17	30	1412	106	13	...	59300	2065	2103
...	35	2095	1100	2337	2305	9	8125	20	900	527	16228	1458	201	...	2366280 lb.	59157	52007
...	...	414	78	154	239	...	1014	...	4	...	2110	151	7	...	51702	6849	6095
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	3	...	...	...	...	676	12	64
81	0	0320	1454	3373	3892	80	12473	40	1100	788	25316	3170	607	...	22842000	95179	89251
...	1	17	...	...	5	...	53	...	...	...	22	7	...	...	708 No.	177	103
...	...	57	2	1	25	...	62	...	...	...	60	...	...	...	16180 lb.	412	437
...	...	82	2	3	11	...	84	...	6	...	111	6	...	...	1050 cwt.	525	548
6	2	2891	222	950	1051	...	7080	...	828	106	20361	700	241	...	218743 c. ft.	54512	70351
...	...	336	59	207	174	...	1122	...	42	6	4240	91	30	...	7967	10615	10378
...	...	281	87	265	305	...	935	...	8	...	2786	123	21	...	6008	1251	10984
...	...	181	4	17	20	...	288	...	22	8	916	43	3	...	27020	2702	3286
...	...	168	2	...	1	...	2085	...	136	230	1443	173	54	...	63000	4797	7840
...	...	507	42	151	177	...	1831	...	31	17	2012	126	10	...	183060	9108	10693
...	...	50	5	48	45	...	201	...	8	4	503	85	3	...	67280	1682	2080
...	...	61	1	0	10	...	120	...	6	2	337	7	...	...	61100	805	801
...	...	...	1	4	4	...	7	...	4	...	21	6	1	...	516 cwt.	129	...
...	...	201	32	131	81	...	1288	...	20	15	1953	161	9	...	30895	6177	6781
...	...	02	28	09	42	...	16	...	4	...	23	21	...	...	1640	288	608
...	...	21	...	7	5	...	45	...	17	...	01	0	4	...	2380	357	865
...	...	104	16	27	30	...	413	...	10	9	578	32	3	...	21200	2120	2513
...	2	282	27	03	00	1	1010	...	06	2	2117	169	20	...	124600	6228	6307
...	...	132	25	102	101	...	070	...	10	17	2073	92	6	...	409520 lb.	6800	5058
...	...	7	2	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	131	13	...	...	48810	407	...
...	...	658	191	460	578	...	1537	...	37	32	3374	177	41	...	2068500	12380	17800
...	...	103	31	101	800	...	231	...	...	...	3148	755	5	...	3008010	6268	8326
...	2	451	183	500	710	...	1809	8	141	33	4075	418	15	...	...	15109	...
...	...	2	...	...	...	...	10	...	...	...	2351	...	...	...	2111	2411	2071
3	4	6000	810	2717	2218	41	10517	3	1106	410	43301	2533	215	...	...	127 07	3203
...	...	38	1	18	12	...	77	...	8	11	23	8	...	...	...	912	203
...	1	2110	707	1801	2550	16	5327	2	150	171	12000	823	90	...	...	44393	33803
910	754	40730	16180	39011	35202	1018	120373	200	14678	9072	282004	25251	5110	...	...	905800	...
700	707	91352	22303	40003	37370	1300	98074	21	11717	6452	225140	23001	1748	13	...	...	813270

Excise Warehouse for mixing with New Zealand distilled spirits.

imposed an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent. in lieu of them, from the 20th of July, 1873.

W. SEED,  
Secretary and Inspector.



## COLONIAL AND PROVINCIAL REVENUE.

COMPARATIVE TABLE of REVENUE COLLECTED by the COLONIAL GOVERNMENT,  
for the Ten Years ended 1872-73.

	Ordinary Revenue.	Territorial Revenue.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
Financial Year 1863-64*... ..	706,683	3,352	710,035
„ Year 1864-65 ... ..	731,685	24,302	756,077
„ Year 1865-66 ... ..	903,360	7,738	911,098
„ Year 1866-67 ... ..	1,058,029	17,994	1,076,023
„ Year 1867-68 ... ..	980,707	10,168	990,875
„ Year 1868-69 ... ..	1,015,843	6,056	1,021,899
„ Year 1869-70 ... ..	1,018,860	11,028	1,029,888
„ Year 1870-71 ... ..	936,183	1,862	938,050
„ Year 1871-72 ... ..	1,031,083	4,059	1,035,142
„ Year 1872-73 ... ..	1,119,904	35,506	1,155,410
Totals ... ..	9,501,812	122,155	9,623,997

\* The financial year ends on the 30th June.

REVENUE COLLECTED by the COLONIAL GOVERNMENT during the Nine Months  
ended Saturday, 28th March, 1874.

	Ordinary.	Territorial.	Total.
1st July, 1873, to 28th March, 1874 ...	£1,009,874	£75,858	£1,085,732

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF REVENUE, Colonial and Provincial, for the Ten Years  
ended 31st December, 1873.

	COLONIAL.		PROVINCIAL.		Total Ordinary.	Total Territorial	Total Colonial and Provincial
	Ordinary.	Territorial	Ordinary.	Territorial.			
Calendar Years	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1864	693,687	8,185	131,714	716,636	825,401	721,819	1,550,220
1865	821,535	25,162	109,217	459,525	933,752	481,087	1,418,439
1866	941,532	9,612	142,234	735,657	1,083,766	745,269	1,829,035
1867	1,000,375	16,168	149,669	508,775	1,240,014	521,943	1,764,087
1868	980,683	7,335	121,939	417,088	1,102,622	425,323	1,527,945
1869	1,012,310	5,608	152,958	376,543	1,195,768	382,151	1,577,919
1870	970,121	9,611	148,222	327,589	1,118,343	337,200	1,455,543
1871	917,789	2,376	129,291	377,467	1,077,080	379,843	1,456,923
1872	1,039,735	5,277	138,650	618,772	1,178,385	624,019	1,802,434
1873	1,251,218	52,082	267,420	1,226,315	1,518,698	1,278,997	2,797,695

## THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

**I**MMIGRATION and public works, from 1853, when the present Constitution was first established, to nearly the end of 1870, exclusively devolved on the several Provinces; and it may be said that, except to a limited extent in the Provinces of Otago and Canterbury, they had, from various causes, almost ceased to exist for a number of years previous to the latter date. Even if the Provinces had generally been able to administer those two great departments of colonization, it became evident that an administration conducted by independent local authorities with distinct local interests and functions, would necessarily be disjointed, and wanting in system and comprehensiveness. The term "Public Works" is used here in relation to works of a colonial character, and in which more than one Province is concerned.

In 1870 the Immigration and Public Works Act and cognate Acts were passed, and the policy contained in them may be shortly described as follows:—

The Colony was to incur a liability, spread over a course of years, amounting altogether, territorially and pecuniarily, to about nine millions, which were to be expended in specified proportions on the under-mentioned objects:—

1. Immigration.
2. Main railways throughout each Island.
3. Roads through the interior of the North Island.
4. The purchase of Native land in the North Island.
5. The supply of water on gold fields.
6. The extension of telegraph works.

The administration of these services was vested in the General Government, and the responsibility, subject to some exceptions in which its action depended on the previous concurrence of Provincial authorities, devolved on the General Government. These exceptions have been abolished by subsequent legislation.

As soon as the session of 1870 closed, it became necessary to organize a department to undertake the special duties, and this department was supervised as required by the Act, by a Minister of Public Works. At first, while the organization was in progress, and the practical work was in its early stage, the Colonial Secretary acted as Minister of Immigration and Public Works; but in the course of a year, when adequate funds were raised, and important works

and immigration on a large scale had been begun throughout the whole Colony, a special Minister was appointed, and shortly afterwards there was one for each Island; but in the latter part of 1872 the whole department was divided into two, namely, Public Works and Immigration, and each was placed separately in the charge of a Minister. This arrangement is still adhered to, and the large increase of the duties of each service, and consequently of the department in charge of that service, and the great importance of those duties, render such a division at present absolutely requisite.

Since its organization the department has constructed in the North Island roads of various descriptions to the extent of 1,150 miles, a large proportion being good traversable dray-roads; also about 500 miles of bush tracks, which, although only at present available for horse traffic, have been selected with great care as suitable routes for dray-roads hereafter. The expenditure on these roads and tracks has been about £300,000. There are now being constructed several hundred more miles of similar roads, which will be the means of opening up nearly all parts of the North Island for settlement.

In the South Island similar roads have been completed on the west coast, to the extent of over 60 miles, and about the same length is now under contract or surveyed ready for contract. They have been laid out with the view of enabling the gold-digging community to get about with ease, and of opening up that part of the country for settlement.

It may here be remarked that before the creation of the Public Works Department of the General Government, many thousands of miles of good and substantial roads had been constructed by the various Provincial Governments throughout the Colony.

The construction of railways has been very vigorously proceeded with. The department has contracted for the completion of over 550 miles of railway throughout the country. In addition to this, Parliament has sanctioned a further length of 360 miles, for which surveys and plans are rapidly being prepared. The whole of the above railways are to cost, when completed with their equipments, about £5,500,000. It is estimated that there are now between 3,000 and 4,000 men con-

stantly employed, and that a still greater number will be required during the next two years to complete the lines above mentioned as having been sanctioned by Parliament.

In addition to the lines under contract, 40 miles of railway constructed by the department are now open and in full working order, as well as a further length of 70 miles constructed by the Provincial Governments of Canterbury and Otago, making a total throughout the Colony of 1,020 miles of railway either open or in various stages of progress.

The department has likewise undertaken the construction of several large water-races on the gold diggings, which, when completed, are calculated to provide remunerative work for several thousand miners and others over a period of many years. For these races Parliament has voted £300,000.

There are also several large coal-fields now in process of rapid development. When these mines are in full work, they will afford permanent employment for many thousand persons of all classes.

It is not necessary further to particularize the work of each department than to state that the conduct of Immigration is in the charge of the Immigration Minister; and that the Public Works,—the remaining services created by the various Immigration and Public Works Acts except the purchase of Native land, which devolves on the Native Minister,—are in charge of the Public Works Minister.

This short sketch will, it is hoped, succinctly and intelligibly show the nature of the departments to which occasional reference is made in this pamphlet, and the special object of which is to give practical effect to the Immigration and Public Works Policy of 1870.

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## IMMIGRATION.

THE conduct of immigration to New Zealand was entirely in the hands of the Provinces up to the end of the year 1870, and the moneys expended in the introduction of immigrants were derived from Provincial revenue; each Province providing according to its requirements and means. The Public Works and Immigration Act of 1870 provided for the application of £1,000,000 out of the loan then authorized to be expended upon the introduction and location of immigrants throughout the Colony. Energetic measures were at once taken by the Government to give effect to this important portion of the Act. The Agency in England received full instructions, and the Provinces were invited to co-operate with the General Government, by setting aside and preparing land for the settlement of the immigrants. A staff of immigration officers was appointed throughout the Colony, whose duty it is to receive and care for the immigrants upon arrival, house them in the depôts, and forward them, when required, to the country districts. The details of management were entrusted to a newly-organized department under a responsible Minister, having charge also of the Public Works. In 1873 it was found advisable to separate the work, and the present Immigration Department was

established, of which the Hon. the Premier of the Colony is the present Ministerial head. The system first adopted was that of granting assisted passages to suitable classes of persons duly selected by the Home Agency, or nominated by their friends in the Colony and approved of by the Agent General; but as it was found by experience that the required money payments seriously checked the flow of a very desirable class of immigration, the Government decided upon making immigration absolutely free, not only providing passages to the Colony in the finest vessels which can be chartered for the purpose, but in all cases where their circumstances render it necessary, bringing the emigrants to the port of embarkation and supplying them with outfit. This system came into force in the month of October, 1873, and has been attended with very satisfactory results. Besides the emigrants from the United Kingdom, a number of Scandinavians have been introduced into the Colony under arrangements with business firms in Hamburg and Christiania. These have been located chiefly in special settlements in the thickly-timbered country in the Provinces of Wellington and Hawke's Bay, and they are reported to be thriving and well doing in every way. It is proposed to extend this class of immigration



during the next two years, as being especially suitable for the settlement of forest lands, of which there is a large area in both Islands.

The establishment of special settlements in various parts of the Colony, where immigrants will be assisted to obtain freeholds under a system of deferred payments or otherwise, is proposed in order to afford opportunities to men with families, whose means are moderate, but who are in a position to place some small amount of capital upon the land. "The Immigrants Land Act, 1873," has further provided in this direction, by authorizing free grants of land to the value of £20 to every immigrant and each adult of his family who after being approved by the Agent-General may have paid their own passages to the Colony; such grants, of course, to be contingent upon actual residence on the location selected.

The present position of the New Zealand immigration scheme may be thus summarized,—1. Absolutely free passages\* to the Colony with, in some cases, assistance for transit to port of embarkation, and outfit. 2. Reception of the immigrants upon arrival in the Colony by officers of the Government, and for a few days their housing and maintenance in comfortable depôts. 3. During those few days immigrants are rationed at public expense, and if they do not find employment at or near the ports, are forwarded to depôts up-country. 4. Immigrants nominated by their friends in the Colony are forwarded, if so required, free of expense, to the place of residence of the person nominating.

The number of immigrants introduced by the General Government, under the Public Works and Immigration Acts, up to the 31st March last, amounted to 17,879 souls, of whom 7,738 were nominated by their friends. In bringing these to the Colony, ninety-one ships were employed, the average length of voyage being under ninety days. The immigrants introduced have been immediately disposed of; in fact, the supply of all kinds of labour has been, and remains, inadequate to the demand. There have been occasional instances where artisans, having only knowledge of one branch of a particular trade, e.g., "fitters," &c., from the manufacturing towns, have found a difficulty in accommodating themselves to the requirements of

the Colony; and, as a rule, workmen of this class should not be encouraged to emigrate to New Zealand. Country mechanics, general blacksmiths, farm labourers, shepherds, ploughmen, and female domestic servants are certain of employment, with good wages and comfortable homes. To illustrate practically what is really the state of things in the Colony, we print the following extracts from letters written by their friends to persons whom they wish to induce to emigrate. These letters, being upon forms furnished to the nominators and sent in with the applications, are forwarded post free by the immigration officers:—

Extract of Letter from A. B. to WILLIAM D., of Newington Causeway, London.

MR. D.,—I am sure if you come to this Colony you will get steady employment at your trade at painting, paper-hanging, or plumbing. You could get 12s. a day, and as many places for your family at good wages.

I should also advise Mary's husband to come out, as here is from 8s. to 9s. per day offered for men of his occupation on the railway. I do not know his name, so I cannot send him a copy. Yours,

March, 1874.

A. B.

Extract of Letter from DANIEL H. to G. J., of Lambeth Walk, Lambeth, England.

I MAY tell you New Zealand is the best part of the colonies for a poor man to come to, as there is plenty of work for industrious persons, and good wages. I remain, dear friend,

March, 1874.

DANIEL H.

Extract of Letter from GEORGE S. to THOS. S.; of Flushing, Falmouth, Cornwall.

DEAR BROTHER,—You say you would like to come out to New Zealand: come, by all means, and come at once; the wages you would get here is more than double (from 8s. to 10s. per day), and living just as reasonable as in England. You need not be under any anxiety, as there is plenty of work for a good workman like yourself. I shall be glad to see and to entertain you. There are a great number of young fellows at Flushing who would do well out here instead of half starving at home. You can try to induce them to come with you, and as many respectable females as you can possibly get. They can all come by the same application and by the same ship as you would come by. Hoping in a short time to see you out, Yours affectionately,

March, 1874.

G. S.

\* It is not intended to continue for any length of time to give free passages. Shortly, the immigrant will probably be required to give a promissory note for the repayment of at least a portion of the cost of passage.

When you write to the Agent-General, don't forget to ask to be allowed to embark at Plymouth instead of London, as this would be a great saving of money. It cost me about £5 to get to ship from Flushing.

*Extract of Letter from JAMES M. to MARTHA F., of Paisley, Scotland.*

DEAR MARTHA,—I advise you to take this opportunity to come to New Zealand. Your relations have all done well. If you value your children's success in this world, you should embrace this opportunity. You will get a free passage, and I believe, by application to the Agent-General, you may sail from Glasgow, and any of your friends or relations may apply to the Agent-General, and they may come with you. You may consult with my cousin, Mrs. Jean L., and I believe she will both advise and assist you to go, you and family, and Margaret McM., and as many young girls as you can get, of a respectable character, but not otherwise. If you come I will receive you at Wellington: rest satisfied on that point.

Yours truly,  
March, 1874. JAMES M.

*Copy of Letter from CHARLES McN., Boot-maker, Christchurch, to JOHN S., Gateshead-on-Tyne, England.*

10th December, 1873.

DEAR JOHN,—I have this day nominated you and your family as people specially fitted for good colonists. My reasons for nominating you are three. First, we need good and steady men, such as you are, to assist in settling the country; second, your own prospects would be very much better than they are in England; and third, the prospects of your daughters would be increased a hundred-fold. For instance, such a girl as your oldest daughter must be by this time, would receive, as a nurse girl, from £15 per year upwards. As another instance of what a girl can do as a machinist, I have one; she is now about sixteen years of age; I pay her 10s. per week; I do not find her; she is very smart, of course; her hours of work are from half-past 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.; and you could depend on getting from 50s. to 60s. a week yourself, and most things as cheap as they are in England; and before I close I might say, you can have all the comforts of life here as fully as you can in Gateshead-on-Tyne.

Time would fail me to write half the advantages of this place over England. One great advantage is the hours of labour in our trade are much shorter, being from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. Another, schooling for children for next to nothing. Churches of

all denominations. Good Templars' Lodges in great numbers. Building Societies, out of which you can acquire cottage and freehold for little more than a rent by monthly payments in the course of a few years. These and many more are within the reach of every steady, prudent man. In nominating you it is your and your family's good I seek; but should you think it would not advantage you to come here, do not come, as this costs me nothing, nor will it do, come or not come.

Should you make up your minds to come (for mark, I want you all to come willing or not at all, it is very important for all to be willing), and should outfit or passage to London stand in the way, apply to our friend William H. I will instruct him, by to-morrow's mail, regarding that, so if you are minded to come there will be nothing for you nor for me to pay, save you will have passage to London to pay, and anything you may have to get from our mutual friend W. H. If you come, let me know, and I will look out for you. So no more from

Yours truly,  
CHARLES McN.

*Copy of Letter from MARY G., of Canterbury, N.Z., to PATRICK B., of Galway, Ireland.*

8th December, 1873.

DEAR UNCLE PATRICK,—If you come to this country, it is not one shilling a day you will have as at home, but from five to ten shillings per day here. If you were to remain at home all the days of your life you never would be out of poverty. You can see yourself, all that left home, to your own knowledge, how well they are doing in this country, sending money home to their parents and friends. Single women get from £20 to £35 a year here, single men from £40 to £60 a year and found. Married couples, without family, get from £60 to £100 a year, house, and found. Provisions of all kinds are much cheaper here than at home. Beef and mutton from 2d. to 5d. per lb. Bread, the four-pound loaf, 7d. Milk, 3d. per quart. Eggs, 1s. per dozen. Ham, 6d. to 10d. per lb. Clothing reasonable enough. Tradesmen of all kinds do well here; at present are getting from ten to twelve shillings per day. If you should come, you may some day have a place of your own freehold for ever; and I have no doubt that you will be thankful for the chance of coming out free, as a good many who have come out on the assisted emigration are doing well. Mr. Charles J. K., I have no doubt, if you should re-

quire, would write for you to the Agent in London. Extract of Letter from AGNES P., to CHARLES T., of Shetland.

I am, dear Uncle and Aunt,  
Your ever fond Niece,

MARY G.

P.S.—I have sent for my father, mother, sisters, and brother, the same time as I did for you, that you may be together. I have also sent for Patrick O., wife, and family, who will do well here.

Copy of Letter from JEREMIAH R., of Canterbury, N.Z., to BESSIE F., of Coolatin, County Wicklow, Ireland.

8th December, 1873.

THIS is a very good country for all that are inclined to get on. You will get from £20 to £25 a year, and when you wish to marry, you will have no difficulty in getting a husband. I like the country very well. I am sure if the people of Ireland knew what a fine country it is, many would come out. I got employment at once at £1 per week, for eight hours' work a day. I get overtime at the same rate. I also have the best of board and lodging. I am living with W. D. from my own country. More demand for single girls and men than for married couples. There is now free immigration here. If you know of any person like yourself, they will have no difficulty in getting out by writing. I think it will cost you £1 for outfit.

Copy of Letter from JESSE W., Canterbury, New Zealand, to DANIEL W., Brinklow, near Coventry, Warwickshire.

13th January, 1874.

DEAR BROTHER,—I hope you will make up your mind and come to New Zealand at once: it will be the best day's work you ever done. You will be sure of immediate employment at good wages when you land. Food is very cheap, and wages high: you will be able to save more every week here than you are earning where you are now. New Zealand is a fine and healthy country; no one can help but like it. Any man may do well that will work.

JESSE W.

Letter from Rev. M. L. O. to CHARLES A., of Gloucester Street, Commercial Road, E., London.

12th January, 1874.

Take a few hundred young men and women with you, particularly carpenters and tradespeople, or farmers with a little money. We want a few thousand Irish here from Tipperary. I wish there were a few of them near the home agents to help Irish or English Catholics out here.

I write you to inform you that joiners here are getting 12s. a day; that the country is healthy; that the voyage, though long, is pleasant and not dangerous; and to invite you to come out along with Mary if you are now married to her. You can get a free passage on applying as directed above.

Extract of Letter from A. M. to THOMAS M., of Shetland.

18th January, 1874.

I invite you all to come out here; we are getting fine wages. The country is fine and healthy. Wages are—for labourers, 8s. a day; carpenters, 12s.; blacksmiths, 10s. to 15s.; shoemakers, £3 a week; tailors, £3 a week; servant girls, from 10s. to 15s. a week. My girls are engaged at 10s. a week, and the other two at 12s. and 13s. Sailors are getting £8 a month. We are all getting 8s. a day. Come away; and if your daughter is married, let her and her husband come.

Extract of Letter from JEMIMA S. to MARY O. H., of Shetland.

18th January, 1874.

Some of the people of Unst do not wish emigration to New Zealand to go on, lest they should have to pay larger wages to their servants, but I am glad I came. I have 12s. a week in a nice family, and am well and happy. I wish you to imitate me and come here, where you can be well and get something like wages. I am getting just about eight times the wages I got in Unst. Give information to all the girls you know in Unst. There is a great demand for servant girls at wages from 10s. a week to 15s. and even 20s.

From the *Southland Times*.

Copy of a Letter from RICHARD GOLDING, an immigrant by ship *Scimitar*, to the Barrack Master, Immigration Depot, Invercargill.

DEAR SIR,—I cannot take leave of you without expressing my best thanks to you for your kindness and the never-tiring energy and trouble you have taken to secure the immigrants good places and good pay. Through your kindness, I have secured a good place, at good wages, and a good home to go to. On our arrival you received us with great kindness, and much credit is due to you for the way you treated us. You had a good supper ready for us the minute we came to the depot. I can



safely say you did all you could to make us welcome and happy. We have not received such kindness and treatment since we left home as we have received in this depot. I find, for cleanliness and comfort, this place beats all that I have been to yet. I am requested to thank you by my fellow-immigrants for your never-failing kindness to them since our arrival here. Many of them could not write to thank you; others got employment so quick that they did not have time to do so. I promised I would do it for them. I shall forward a copy of this letter to Dover, Kent, England, to Colonel Couchman, R.A.; Major Dickson, M.P. for Dover; the Earl of Gifford, Lady Cockbourne, and Colonel Henderson, Chief Commissioner of Police, London (whose service I have just left to come here). This is a fine country for a young man to come to, and a man with a family can do well in this place. There is plenty of work, and good pay for eight hours' work. I have myself left a good home to come here, and I am fully paid for my trouble in coming out here. I should advise every one that wants to better his position in life to come here. The above-named gentlemen will have a copy of this letter to get published in the English papers. I promised to send them a true account of the treatment received here: You may publish this, if you think fit.—I am, &c.,

RICHARD GOLDING.

#### An Immigrant's Advice to her Sisters.

24th January, 1874.

Bring as few things as you can, luggage being one of the most troublesome things possible for single women. Each of you must have one box that you can get at, once a month, during the voyage. Into it put all your best things. Each must also have a large carpet-bag with a good lock. In it put twelve shifts, to save washing, for if you have to wash them with salt water it spoils them—old ones will do very well; also eight or ten pairs of stockings and two flannel petticoats, besides the one you have on, so that you may have enough to last through the voyage. Have also a red flannel jacket to wear at night, and plenty of pins and needles with you, as well as any work you could bring to do during the voyage, knitting or sewing, thread for tatting, or anything you can get. Each must have her own bag, which you will be allowed to keep in your berth, and you will get to them when you like. Let the boxes be properly addressed, and stitch an address on each of the bags. You should have a small box for three shilling tins

baking powder, or you will have nothing to eat but ship biscuits. You get your flour weighed out to you, and you can mix the powder in it and it will make very good bread. Don't omit that. Carbonate of soda and tartaric acid might do, but not so well as the baking powder. A large tin of biscuits would be a good thing to bring. Some brandy and a little ginger wine is also good to have. The female emigrants are divided into messes of six or eight persons, and each mess has a table. You must keep a good look-out for your own share, and keep all your own things locked up. Be frank, obliging, and kind to all, but make a friend of no one, and keep your tongue still, for there is always some scandal and bother going on: so be advised, and keep by yourselves on the voyage. I forgot to tell you to have a hat on when you leave home, not too good to wear on board ship, and have some bits of stuff in your carpet bag to trim it up after a while, as it will soon get to look shabby. Also have a dress in your bag to wear on Sunday, with collar and cuffs. You must also have some light print frocks to wear in the tropics. You would need three, which you can have in your box, as you will get them out, there being a general turn-out of boxes to let the people get their light things for the heat. After that comes the cold, for which you must have worsted cuffs and a good warm jacket to wear all day, also a shawl or cloak to take round you, for the cold is severe. All your dirty clothes you will get washed at the immigration barracks when you land. Have some little bits of things to put round your neck. They help to make you look tidy. Above all, do not answer any letters that may be written to you by any of the sailors or passengers, for as they are not allowed to speak, they write. You know they dress and go to church on board just the same as on land. Be sure to have your Bible and some of Spurgeon's sermons handy to read. Also have a coarse apron to put on when it is your turn to wash up the dishes for your mess.

From *Chambers's Journal*, Feb. 14th, 1874.

Since specifying some of the circumstances which recommend New Zealand to favourable consideration, we have received fresh information from a friend in the Colony, on which every reliance may be placed. In his letter, dated from Wellington, 23d November, 1873, he says, "We are now offering free passages to all who can pass the selection. We do not want paupers or

infirm people ; but persons able and willing to work, of all kinds, are in urgent demand, especially good domestic servants. A ship, the 'Helen Denny,' came in last week from London, with 130 immigrants—a mere drop in the bucket. I went yesterday to Mount Cook barracks to see them. They were a very tidy, respectable body. Some girls from London were among them. One, a smart little lassie, aged seventeen, had been in 'service since she was eleven. In her last place she got 3s. per week. Here she was already engaged at 10s. The climate seemed to strike them. One also remarked, 'How clean all the people are !' This does not strike us who are used to it, but any one who knows the back slums of every big town in England and Scotland, must observe a marked contrast in the appearance of the people in our colonial towns. All dress well, and the women of the very humblest rank, I think, extravagantly so. But wages being good and employment abundant, and no accumulation of a depraved idle class, squalor and poverty are not to be seen. It is undoubtedly pleasing to see the tidy smartness of the young women, married and single. People are here more simple in their habits than is the case at Melbourne. There the overplus of wealth, along with a degree of recklessness, have led to an artificial and bloated style of living. Carriages and luxurious houses are there the rage—a result being that many get into difficulties. Here, things are taken more naturally. As regards immigration, I enclose a summary of wages offered to artizans and others, from a local paper."

The following Letter, written by Mr. JOHN FRASER, of Christchurch, in the Province of Canterbury, is copied from an Edinburgh paper, the *Daily Review*, of 11th Dec. 1873.

SIR,—The facilities at present afforded by the Government of New Zealand for the conveyance of immigrants to this Colony, and the kindness with which they are treated on their arrival, ought certainly to be taken advantage of by an immense number of the working classes of Great Britain. My best way to bring these advantages under your notice is by giving a brief account of the manner in which those who came here with me three months ago were treated by the immigration authorities, both throughout the voyage from England and on our arrival here ; also by briefly alluding to the prospects and inducements held out in this Colony for immigrants, and by comparing these with what is to be met with in the United States of America or Canada. In order, therefore,

to show my competency to judge of the contrast between these nations as fields for immigration, allow me to inform you that I have been in almost every State in the American Union, also in all the principal provinces and towns in Canada, and throughout several of the leading nations in the Continent of Europe, and that under circumstances whereby I had every opportunity to see and know the real state of matters there, and not what they are represented in emigration pamphlets and other accounts, written expressly for the sake of trade and not for the sake of the poor emigrants, who, in many cases, only become victims to misleading advertisements.

The ship chartered for our conveyance was one of the strongest and most seaworthy that could be found in England, being built of Indian teak in the days when stability was considered before speed, and material was thoroughly seasoned before it was put in use. Our voyage was somewhat longer than the average run, but the confidence we all had in the old ship's stability, owing to her having survived the terrific storm we encountered in the Bay of Biscay on the 2nd of February last, as well as the excellent quality and sufficient quantity of provisions served to us throughout the voyage, would have prevented any comments upon that subject, were it not that we, unfortunately, had simple fever on board. I am sorry I cannot speak in the same terms of the bedding provided for those who came out on the assisted passage scheme. The mattresses consisted of wool, hair, and a mixture of rags or tailors' parings. Now it is this last part of the mixture that I don't approve of, as it has (at least) a tendency to carry disease on board. I remember seeing one of the pillows cut open by the young men, and it contained the same mixture as the beds, with an addition of still more objectionable ingredients. The only other arrangement that I considered deficient was the want of ventilation by means of "jalousies" between the compartments between decks, especially between those that had only one hatchway or inlet to them ; also, the want of private doors in bulkheads, to be used only by the surgeon-superintendent on ordinary occasions, but in the event of any alarm or accident in one compartment that the passengers could be removed without the danger of going on deck. This last arrangement would have saved a great exposure to danger, and several injuries sustained by the passengers and crew when our ship was disabled in the Bay of Biscay.

After the usual inconveniences of a long confinement on board ship, we arrived at



the port of Lyttelton, Canterbury, in the latter end of June (the middle of winter here), and as we had fever on board were very properly and to our advantage ordered into quarantine, on Ripa Island, where we were received with great kindness by the master and matron, Mr. and Mrs. Plumber. We spent the next ten days there; every one cleaning up and preparing his kit for colonial life, the men working a few hours daily, making paths, &c., around the buildings, which were not quite finished for our reception. The arrangements made upon this little island for the comfort of unfortunate immigrants are certainly very good, and the hospital wards and all the other arrangements for the comfort and separation of the sick are upon the most modern and approved principle. During our stay there we were supplied with abundance of fresh provisions, and whatever was required for the use and comfort of the sick was granted on demand.

On the 8th of July we were taken on board a small screw steamer and conveyed to Lyttelton, where we all expected to be thrown upon our own resources; but not so—a train was there in readiness to convey us to barracks, near Christchurch, where all those who had no friends to go to might remain, free of expense, until they got employment. At the same time, the authorities advertised that so many of different trades were there awaiting employment, and the result was that nearly all of them were engaged the next morning at the following rates of wages:—Married couples, £80 per annum, and found; single men, farm labourers, £26 to £52 per annum, and found; boys, £10 per annum; single women, general servants, £20 to £30; and nurses £12 per annum. All those who had the good fortune to be tradesmen got from 10s. to 12s. per day of eight hours, that being a day's work here. In a few days more we were scattered all over the Province, the Immigration Officer forwarding those that had friends up the country to their destination free of expense. All these facts will clearly show that it is not necessary to have much money at the time of landing in this Province to insure success; on the contrary, those who have money will not accept a rough-and-ready job until their money is spent, and necessity compels them to do so; whereas the man that had no money at the time of landing took the first employment he got the chance of, and by the time the other man commences work the cards are changed, and the one who landed poor, and may be penniless, is better off than the other. I always found this to be the case

in America and Canada as well as here. It is now about three months since we came here, and during that time I have frequently come across several of my fellow-passengers, both men and women, and after an interchange of the usual congratulations, "How are you getting on, and what are you doing?" are invariably the next questions, and in every case the answer has been—"First-rate." I am happy to say that I have hitherto been able to return the same answer. I will now give the price of provisions, &c., that they may be compared with the above rates of wages:—Beef, 3d. to 4d. per lb.; mutton, 2d. to 3d. per lb.; 4 lb. loaf, 6d. to 6d.; tea, sugar, coffee, butter, cheese, eggs, &c., about the same price as in the old country. House rents and coals are half as much again, or 50 per cent. more than at home; and clothing, boots, &c., about 15 to 20 per cent. more than at home. A working man can live in any of the boarding-houses in Christchurch for 15s. to 16s. per week, and have a variety of butcher meat three times a day. Spirituous liquors cost 6d. a glass everywhere here; but "God forbid" that any person will come here with the intention to drink his surplus money. If there should be such a person, allow me to inform him that there is a well-conducted lunatic asylum here, and that one for drunkards is in course of erection; in either of which it is more than likely he will end his days. "The Mysteries of Glasgow Whisky" would be a joke to the "Mysteries of Christchurch Spirits," if they were similarly dealt with and exposed in the public papers. The class of people that is required here is the actual working class,—men and women who are neither afraid nor ashamed to work, and not very particular what kind of work they turn their hands to. All such people are bound to better their condition by coming here, not only as servants, working shorter hours and better fed and paid than at home, but with the prospect of being either landowners or business people after a few years of toil; what they could never aspire to in the old country. It is not the man or woman who always enjoyed a luxurious life in a comfortable situation in the old country that realizes most the advantages of coming to a country like this; but the poor, hard-wrought man who could barely afford from his small earnings a sufficiency of the necessities of life to himself and his family. I do not mean to say but the first man will make more money here than in the old country; but there is a considerable difference between gratifying the mind with a heavy purse, and satisfying the crav-





vings of a hungry appetite with a good dinner.

I cannot say much from my own experience about the climate of this Province, owing to my not being here a whole season; but from what I have seen and learned from the most reliable sources, I consider it thoroughly adapted to British constitutions. The past winter has been very mild; there has been a great deal of rain, but no snow upon the plains. The nights are, in proportion, colder than the days, and the changes more sudden than at home. I can neither say much upon the subject of land-purchasing, only that I see from the daily newspapers so many hundreds of thousands of acres being sold weekly, and the average price is about £2 per acre. The greater part of this Province is a vast plain, without wood, so that the land can easily be ploughed and a crop got off the first season. I have been informed that for about 12s. an acre it can be got ploughed; so that for less than £3 per acre the land can be bought and put under crop, except the price of seed. Cattle are very cheap here. A good four-year-old horse can be bought for £20, and a very good serviceable horse can be bought for half that sum, and even for less money. A good milch cow can be bought for £4. 10s. to £5. 10s. Articles of husbandry and machinery are more expensive than at home; but from what I have ascertained from landowners here, it does not require such a large sum as a stranger would be apt to think to start a man in a comfortable farm of his own.

Christchurch, the capital of this Province, contains a population of about 10,000 souls, the result of three-and-twenty years' habitation; also churches of different denominations, banks, museum, zoological garden, orphanage, lunatic asylum, and a prison; from all of which it must be admitted that this is a thriving Colony.

I will now, for comparison, briefly relate an immigrant's treatment on arrival at New York. After the usual international preliminaries are gone through, the Custom officers come on board and commence to examine the luggage. Every box and parcel is ransacked without mercy, and in some cases the contents thrown upon deck without being at all particular what injuries they may sustain. Every package is then labelled with a numbered brass ticket, a duplicate of which is given to the owner to redeem it at Castle Gardens. Immigrant and luggage are then transferred to a steam-tug, or a barge, to be conveyed to the landing-stage. After landing, the immigrants have to pass a gate in single file, and enter

their names, profession, and destination in a book; after which an official mounts a rostrum and gives them a few good instructions, such as "those that have friends up the country to go to them at once; those who can go up country to look for work to do so without delay, as their stay in town will be expensive, and their prospects to get employment not so good, &c., &c.;" after this they are set at liberty to procure employment as best they can. There is an employment agency there, but where several thousands are landed day after day, a very small per-centage indeed find employment there. There is also a money exchange office, where the full value is always given without imposition. As soon as a number of immigrants make their appearance outside the building, they are accosted by a legion of "land-sharks," for whom no falsehood is too great, and no scheme to extort money too base. This class of men, or rather "licensed imposters," are to be met with at all the landing-stages and principal railway-stations in America. There is still another class of imposters to be guarded against, and that is employment agents: they will tell the "greenhorn" that so many situations of different kinds at various salaries are at their disposal, and by paying a certain sum he can have one of them "through their influence," if he is found suitable. Almost invariably the applicant is found "unsuitable," and not only forfeits the agent's commission, but during the interval—which, if it can possibly be effected, will be several days—he is not only losing time, but incurring expense. Now, suppose that a man gets employment there at a higher pay than in Great Britain, yet he has insurmountable difficulties to contend with, which, in my opinion, will more than outweigh his advantages. There are the extremes of climate. In summer the heat is almost tropical, and in winter the cold is almost polar. Besides these, a British subject is an alien there, and cannot be admitted into any Government employ until he takes the oaths of affiliation, and disclaims any future allegiance to his mother country; so that he has neither voice nor vote in the affairs of the county, town, or State, in which he resides. I admit that many thousands have bettered their circumstances by emigrating from Great Britain to America, but I maintain that if these people had only used the same exertions in this province as they were compelled to do there, they would have acquired much greater results with still greater ease. The security of life and property is another great consideration, and I must say that

there are good laws and institutions in America; but the law is not enforced there as strictly as it is here, and that may account, to a certain extent, for the uncertainty of life and property. There is still another reason for it as well, and that is the great influx of ill-disposed people that resort to it from all the nations of Europe and elsewhere every year. No sensible person will for one moment think that the sea voyage across the Atlantic will change their habits, though it may cure them of the bile. I must not leave you under the impression that every one the immigrant meets with in America will attempt to take advantage of him. He will meet with people of the most noble minds and purest motives there, who will not only give him good instruction, but actually exert themselves to do him a good turn and procure employment for him. The United States of America are, in my humble opinion, the most independent nation in the world, because they are self-supporting; but as a field for immigration, I cannot in any way compare their advantages with those of this Province, where no uncivil Custom officers ransack your baggage on arrival; no land-sharks impose upon and mislead you; no extremes of climate burden your daily toil; where employment is not only easy to be got, but actually procured for immigrants (the demand being always greater than the supply); where the laws are purely British, and strictly enforced by an efficient police force, rendering life and property as safe as in any part of Great Britain; and where the immigrant upon his arrival is entitled to all the privileges, and if competent, may occupy any position or office in the Province without the ceremony of affiliation or disclaiming future fidelity to his mother country.

I will now very briefly refer to Canada as a field for emigration, and I am sorry that my experience there will not enable me to advise any person who can live comfortably in Great Britain to go to that Dominion with a view to better his condition. Not only has he the extremes of climate to endure, which will prevent his working more than eight or at the most nine months in the year, but the rate of wages is not much better than in the old country. A labouring man who will get a dollar (4s. 2d.) a day in Canada will get 7s. to 8s. in this Province. I have seen strong able men working in different capacities, in Canada for 75 cents (3s. 1½d.) per day, and enduring the rays of a scorching sun to burden their toil. I admit that there is plenty of work for many thousands of immigrants in

the back woods of Canada, but I consider that the immigrant's great object should be "wages under easy circumstances," not "labour under disadvantages," such as he will meet with in Canada. When I say that I have seen more men looking for work in Canada, and could not find any, than ever I saw in Great Britain, in proportion to the population, it may be thought that I am prejudiced against Canada; but I am not, and this is truth. From published statistics it will be seen that so many thousands are annually emigrating to British North America, but I am prepared to say that twelve months after landing one-third of them (at least) are only to be found in the United States, where they are much better paid. Provisions are cheaper than in Britain, but it must be remembered that a long winter is to be provided for, when no work can be done. The great inducement in Canada is the free-homestead principle of acquiring land; but what is land to a poor immigrant, without means to cultivate it? Nor at the present rate of wages there can he have any great hopes of acquiring means to keep himself respectable. The amount of money necessary to clear one acre of land in Canada will buy and clear from three to five acres in this Province, and that without any loss of time. There are no provisions made by the Canadian Government for the maintenance of immigrants until they find employment; on the contrary, they caution them to be prepared with means for that purpose; and I can only say that the more he is prepared the better for himself. Canada is an extensive Dominion, rich in timber, agriculture, and minerals; but as a field for emigration it will only rank second to the United States, which I have already classed as second to this Colony. The same religious privileges and rights of nationality are enjoyed by British immigrants in Canada as they have here; but the extremes of climate are insurmountable difficulties to contend with, not only to the working man, but to the farmers as well, as they have to stall-feed their cattle there for about five months in each year; while in this Province of New Zealand they are neither housed nor fed but by what nature provides for their wants in the fields.

I have not, as yet, been to Australia; but from the fact that a great number of the people here have come from there, I conclude that this is at least as good a field for immigration, with a much more preferable climate.

I have now given you a brief summary of my observations and experience in those



parts of the world that are the chief "fields for emigration," hoping that they may stimulate a desire in the bosoms of at least some of my friends and acquaintances, who have to work for their daily bread, to seek it where, by honest labour, it is to be found plentifully and with considerable ease. It may be thought by some that I have judged rashly; and if such should be the case, my reply is, that it is while the scenes of poverty and distress, that are daily met with in the old country, are fresh in a person's memory, that he can best see the advantages of

riches and plenty such as are everywhere to be met with here. The subject is one that would require a volume to be written upon to do it justice; but I have neither time nor desire to become a historian. I have here truly and conscientiously, and without scruple or prejudice against one place more than another, given you the substance of my experience in those parts of the world, and should any of my friends or others be guided by it, and better their condition, I shall consider myself amply rewarded for my trouble.

## OFFICIAL DIRECTORY.

### LEGISLATURE

Composed of the Governor, a Legislative Council appointed by the Crown for life, and a House of Representatives, containing seventy-eight members, elected for five years.

#### GOVERNOR.

The Most Noble the Marquis of Normanby, K.C.M.G., Governor and Commander-in-Chief.

#### CABINET.

Julius Vogel, O.M.G., Premier, Colonial Treasurer, Postmaster-General, and Telegraph Commissioner.

Sir Donald McLean, K.C.M.G., Minister for Native Affairs.

Edward Richardson, Minister for Public Works.

William Hunter Reynolds, Commissioner of Customs.

Secretary for Crown Lands and Land Claims Commissioner.

Minister of Justice and Commissioner of Stamp Duties.

Daniel Pollen, Colonial Secretary.

H. A. Atkinson, Minister of Immigration.

Wiremu Katene—Without portfolio.

Wi Parata—Without portfolio.

#### AGENT-GENERAL.

Agent-General for New Zealand in London—Isaac Earl Featherston.

#### LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

Speaker—J. L. C. Richardson

Chairman of Committees—M. Richmond, O.B.

#### Members.

Acland, J. B. A.

Baillie, W. D. H.

Bartley, T. H.

Bonar, J. A.

Brett, De R. J.

Buchanan, A.

Buckley, G.

Campbell, R.

Chamberlin, H.

Domett, A.

Edwards, N.

Farmer, J.

Fraser, T.

Grace, M. S.

Gray, E.

Hall, J.

Hart, R.

Holmes, M.

Johnson, G. R.

Johnston, J.

Kenny, W. H.

Kohere, M.

Lahmann, H. H.

Maclean, E.

Mantell, W. B. D.

Menzies, J. A. R.

Miller, H. J.

Ngatata, W. T.

Nurse, W. H.

Paterson, J.

Peacocke, J. T.

Peter, W. S.

Pharazyn, C. J.

Pillans, F. S.

Pollen, D.

Renwick, T.

Rhodes, W. B.

Richardson, J. L. C.

Richmond, M., C.B.

Robinson, W.

Russell, H. R.

Scotland, H.

Stokes, R.

Taylor, C. J.

Taylor, J. P.

Waterhouse, G. M.

Whitmore, G. S.

Wigley, T. H.

Williamson, Jas.

Clerk of the Council—L. Stowe.

Clerk-Assistant—G. W. Jordan.

#### HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

Speaker—Sir F. Dillon Bell,

Chairman of Committees—Arthur Penrose Seymour.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES—*continued.**Members.*

Andrew, J. C.	O'Connor, E. J.
Atkinson, H. A.	O'Neill, C.
Bell, Sir F. D.	Ormond, J. D.
Bluett, W. J. G.	O'Rourke, G. M.
Bradshaw, J. B.	Parata, Wiremu
Brandon, A. de B.	Parker, C.
Brown, J. C.	Parker, G. B.
Brown, J. E.	Pearce, E.
Bryce, J.	Pyke, V.
Buckland, W. T.	Reeves, W.
Bunny, H.	Reid, D.
Carrington, F. A.	Reynolds, W. H.
Creighton, R. J.	Richardson, E.
Curtis, O.	Richmond, A. J.
Cuthbertson, J. R.	Rolleston, W.
Fitzherbert, W.	Seymour, A. P.
Fox, W.	Sheehan, J.
Gibbs, W.	Shephard, J.
Gillies, J. L.	Shepherd, T. L.
Gillies, T. B.	Stafford, E. W.
Harrison, W. H.	Steward, W. J.
Henderson, T.	Studholme, J.
Hunter, G.	Swanson, W.
Ingles, H. A.	Tairaroa, Hori Kerei
Jackson, W.	Takamoana, Karaitiana
Johnston, W. W.	Thomson, J. W.
Katene, W.	Tolmie, W. A.
Kelly, T.	Tribe, G. H.
Kelly, W.	Vogel, J.
Kenny, C. W. A. T.	Wakefield, E. J.
Luckie, D. M.	Wales, N. Y. A.
Macandrew, J.	Webb, H. R.
McGillivray, L.	Webster, G.
McGlashan, E.	White, J.
McLean, D.	Williams, J. W.
May, J.	Williamson, J.
Mervyn, D. H.	Wilson, Sir Cracroft,
Montgomery, W.	K.O.S.I., C.B.
Munro, J.	Wood, R. G.
Murray, W. A.	

*Clerk of Parliaments*—F. E. Campbell*Clerk of Writs*—G. S. Cooper*Deputy Clerk of Writs*—A. O. P. Macdonald*Clerk-Assistant*—G. Friend*Second Clerk-Assistant*—J. P. Stevenson*Interpreter*—T. E. Young*Assistant Librarian*—Ewen McColl

## SUPERINTENDENTS OF PROVINCES.

Auckland—John Williamson  
 Taranaki—Frederick Alonzo Carrington  
 Hawke Bay—John Davies Ormond  
 Wellington—Wm. Fitzherbert, C.M.G.  
 Nelson—Oswald Curtis  
 Westland—James Alexander Bonar  
 Marlborough—Arthur Penrose Seymour  
 Canterbury—William Rolleston  
 Otago—James Macandrew

## CIVIL ESTABLISHMENT AT SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

Governor and Commander-in-Chief—The Most Noble the Marquis of Normanby, K.C.M.G.

Private Secretary—

Aide-de-Camp—

Extra Aide-de-Camp—

Clerk of Executive Council—Forster Goring.

PREMIER—Hon. Julius Vogel, C.M.G.

Secretary to Cabinet—G. S. Cooper

Secretary to Premier—E. Fox.

## COLONIAL SECRETARY'S OFFICE.

Colonial Secretary—Hon. Daniel Pollen

Under Secretary—G. S. Cooper

Assistant Under Secretary—A. O. P. Macdonald

Chief Clerk—A. M. Smith

Clerk—R. H. Govett.

## PATENT OFFICE.

Patent Officer—J. Prendergast

Registrar—O. J. A. Haselden.

## DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE.

Minister of Justice—

Under Secretary—R. G. Fountain

Chief Clerk—O. J. A. Haselden

Record Clerk—E. F. Norris.

## CROWN LAW OFFICE.

Attorney-General—J. Prendergast

Assistant Law Officer—W. S. Reid

Clerk—H. Williamson.

## PUBLIC WORKS OFFICE.

Minister of Public Works—Hon. E. Richardson

Under Secretary—John Knowles

Chief Clerk—O. T. Bonzoni

Record Clerk—N. W. Werry

Clerks—G. Ward, O. A. Baker, F. Clayton

Accountant—H. Lawson

Sub-accountant—R. E. Bannister

Clerks—L. E. St. George, W. O. Calcott

Engineer-in-Chief—J. Carruthers

Assistant Engineer-in-Chief—J. Blackett

Superintending Engineers—H. P. Higginson, South Island; O. B. Knorpp, North Island

Engineers—H. Ozorwonka, R. P. Ormo

Chief Draughtsman—H. O. W. Wrigg

Draughtsmen—T. Perham, A. Koch, F.

Bull, W. G. Sealy, O. Palmer, W. H. T.

Stewart, O. Wood, K. Douglas, J. Gibbs,

A. A. Wrigg

Junior Draughtsmen—O. H. Pierard, G. R. Card

Record Clerk—H. T. Pyroft

Computer—O. A. Knapp

Engineer—A. G. Fowler.

PUBLIC WORKS OFFICE—*continued.*

District Engineers—J. Stewart, Auckland ; J. T. Stewart, Manawatu ; C. Y. O'Connor, Christchurch ; F. H. Geisow, Greymouth ; W. N. Blair, Dunedin ; W. Brunton, Invercargill ; A. D. Dobson, Westport.

Resident Engineers—W. H. Clark, Waikato ; A. C. Turner, Tauranga ; J. Breen, Rangiri ; D. M. Beere, Te Aute ; W. H. Hales, Wanganui ; S. Harding, Riverhead ; C. Weber, Napier ; G. M. Wink, Wellington ; J. R. Rees, Wanganui ; E. Evans, Westport ; D. W. McArthur, Greymouth ; B. H. Darnell, New Plymouth ; A. D. Austin, Nelson ; A. Dobson, Picton ; T. D. Triphook, Rangiora ; E. Cuthbert, Southbridge ; J. H. Lowe, Oamaru ; G. P. Williams, Oamaru ; D. A. McLeod, Waitaki ; W. Paisley, Tokomairiro ; W. E. Brunton, Invercargill ; Alex. Aitken, Grahamstown.

Colonial Architect—W. H. Clayton

Accountant—W. A. Gardiner.

## COLONIAL TREASURER'S DEPARTMENT.

*Chief Office.*

Colonial Treasurer—Hon. J. Vogel, C.M.G.  
Secretary to the Treasury, Receiver-General, and Paymaster-General—C. T. Batkin.  
Accountant to the Treasury—J. C. Gavin  
Clerk for Loan and Trust Accounts—T. Truman.

*Receiver-General's Branch.*

Chief Clerk—W. H. Warren  
Clerks—T. H. Boughton, W. G. Holdsworth, P. P. Webb, W. T. Thane, J. Gandy, J. Powno, E. L. Mowbray, F. K. de Castro.

*Paymaster General's Branch.*

Chief Clerk and Cashier—W. Best  
Clerks—J. H. Gillard, J. B. Heywood, M. McCredie, J. McGowan, J. O. Davis, D. Cumming, O. Meacham, W. E. Cooper, O. L. Woledge, T. J. Davis, G. J. Olapham, O. F. W. Palliser, F. Sheppard, O. O'H. Smith.

*Record Branch.*

Chief Clerk—H. Blundell  
Clerk—W. W. Bodman.

*Public Trustee's Office.*

Public Trustee and Accountant in Bankruptcy—J. Woodward  
Clerk—O. D. de Castro.

## STAMP OFFICE.

Commissioner—  
Chief Clerk and Accountant—H. E. de B. Brandon  
Clerks—Edward L. Ingpen, William Withers.

## AUDIT OFFICE.

*Commissioners of Audit.*

Auditor-General—O. Knight, M.D., F.R.C.S.  
Comptroller—J. E. Fitzgerald, C.M.G.

Deputy Auditor and Chief Clerk—J. G. Anderson.

Clerks—O. H. Snow, James Davis, Henry Hartwright, R. E. E. Plimpton, L. C. Roskrige, R. O'Connor, H. Halse, F. Back, J. Churton, C. L. Wiggins.

## GENERAL POST OFFICE.

Postmaster-General—Hon. Julius Vogel, C.M.G.

Secretary—W. Gray

Inspector—Thomas Rose

Accountant, Money Orders and Savings

Banks—J. K. Warburton

Chief Clerk—J. W. Wilkin

Dead Letter Clerk—H. Morrow

Clerks—G. M. Nation, L. Halliwell, W. S. Rodger, W. Hickson.

## TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

General Manager—O. Lemon

Accountant—Abraham Sheath

Chief Clerk—A. T. Maginnity

Electrician—W. H. Floyd

Clerks—G. Gray, J. G. Corbett

Cadets—S. Cimino, C. Storey, E. C. Corliss, W. Wardrop

Mechanician—H. F. Smith

Storekeeper—J. T. Williamson.

## CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT.

Commissioner—Hon. W. H. Reynolds

Secretary and Inspector of Customs—W. Seed

Chief Clerk—W. France

Clerks—H. W. Williams, G. W. Ewart.

*(Distilleries Branch.)*

Chief Inspector—W. Seed

Inspector—W. Heaps

Cadet—P. Brown.

*(Marine Branch.)*

Secretary—W. Seed

Marine Engineer—John Blackett, C.E.

Inspector of Steamers and Nautical Assessor—R. Johnson

Inspector of Steamers and Engineer Surveyor—J. Nancarrow

Examiner of Masters and Mates in Navigation, &c.—R. A. Edwin, Com. R.N.

Clerk—L. Wilson.

## NATIVE AND DEFENCE OFFICE.

Native Minister—Hon. Sir Donald McLean, K.C.M.G.

Under Secretary for Native Affairs—H. T. Clarke

Assistant Native Secretary—H. Halse



NATIVE AND DEFENCE OFFICE—*continued*.

Acting Under Secretary for Defence—Lieut.-Col. W. Moule  
 Chief Clerk—T. W. Lewis  
 Accountant—R. J. Gill  
 Translator—T. E. Young  
 Record Clerk—W. J. Morpeth  
 Clerks—A. Boughton, F. N. Russell, F. W. Riemenschneider, G. H. Davies, R. Whitaker, W. C. Higgin  
 Commissioner of Native Reserves—Major Charles Heaphy, V.O.

*Militia and Volunteer Branch.*

Clerk—F. Stevens.

*Land Purchase Branch.*

Lieut.-Colonel J. H. H. St. John  
 Clerk—P. Sheridan.

*Waka Maori.*

Editor—J. Grindell.

SECRETARY FOR CROWN LANDS  
DEPARTMENT.

Secretary for Crown Lands (also Land Claims Commissioner)—  
 Under Secretary—C. E. Haughton  
 Chief Clerk—H. J. Masters  
 Clerks—O. Wakefield, H. E. Leadam, F. Samuel  
 Draughtsman and Assistant Inspector of Surveys—J. W. A. Marchant  
 Assistant Draughtsman and Clerk to Land Claims Commissioner—G. Fannin.

## LAND TRANSFER OFFICE, CHRISTCHURCH.

Registrar-General of Land and Deeds—J. S. Williams.

## REGISTRAR-GENERAL'S OFFICE.

Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages—W. R. E. Brown  
 Clerks—W. Teague, H. J. Von Dadelszen.

## GEOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

Manager of Geological Survey and Curator of Colonial Museum—J. Hector, M.D., F.R.S.  
 Assistant Geologist—  
 Clerk—R. B. Gore  
 Draughtsman, &c.—John Buchanan  
 Analyst—Wm. Skey  
 Messenger—John Smith.

## PRINTING OFFICE.

Government Printer—G. Didsbury.

## INSPECTOR OF STORES DEPARTMENT.

Inspector of Stores—Lieut.-Colonel E. Gorton  
 Chief Clerk—O. A. Humphrey  
 Clerks—John Curry, Sydney Dando.

## IMMIGRATION DEPARTMENT.

Minister for Immigration—Hon. A. A. Atkinson  
 Under Secretary—C. E. Haughton  
 Chief Clerk—  
 Accountant—J. F. Ballard  
 Clerks—E. O. Gibbs, R. Lynch, G. T. Waitt.

*Immigration Officers, also Emigration Officers under Passengers Act.*

Auckland—Dr. Pollen  
 Immigration Officer—H. Ellis  
 Thames—D. G. McDonnell  
 Taranaki—W. R. Hulko  
 Wellington—H. J. H. Elliott  
 Wanganui and Rangitikei—A. F. Halcombe  
 Napier—G. T. Fannin  
 Marlborough—John Barleyman  
 Nelson—C. Elliot  
 Greymouth—J. S. Wyldo  
 Hokitika—F. A. Learmonth  
 Christchurch—J. E. March  
 Timaru—F. Le Cron  
 Oamaru—  
 Dunedin—Colin Allan  
 Riverton—T. Daniell  
 Invercargill—W. H. Pearson.

## GOVERNMENT ANNUITIES DEPARTMENT.

Commissioner—W. Gisborne  
 Accountant—C. G. Knight  
 Clerks—R. U. H. Vincent, T. J. Boyes, and W. W. Knowles  
 Cadets—J. H. Dean, J. H. Richardson, and S. W. D. Irvine  
 Travelling Agents—T. F. McDonough, F. E. Wright, H. Clapcott, and W. J. Mooney.

## DEPARTMENTS OF THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT IN THE PROVINCES.

## JUDICIAL.

*Supreme Court Judges.*

Chief Justice—  
 Auckland—Sir G. A. Arney.  
 Puisne Judges—  
 Wellington—A. J. Johnston  
 Nelson and Westland—O. W. Richmond  
 Canterbury—H. B. Gresson  
 Otago—H. S. Chapman.

*District Court Judges—*

Auckland and Grahamstown—T. Beekham  
 New Plymouth—H. E. Kenny  
 Napier, Waipawa, and Gisborne—T. S. Weston  
 Westport, Reefton, Charleston, Ahaura, Hokitika, Greymouth—G. W. Harvey

*District Court Judges—continued.*

Timaru, Oamaru, Tokomairiro, and Invercargill—O. D. R. Ward  
 Otago Gold Fields—W. Gray.

*Registrars of the Supreme Court—*

Auckland—L. O'Brien  
 New Plymouth—H. E. Kenny  
 Napier—D. Guy  
 Wellington—A. S. Allen  
 Nelson—E. W. Bunny  
 Blenheim—J. Barleyman  
 Christchurch—E. S. Wilcocks  
 Dunedin—E. ff. Ward  
 Invercargill—W. Stuart.

*Resident Magistrates—*

Auckland—T. Beckham  
 Onehunga, Papakura, and Wainuku—R. O. Barstow  
 Wangarei—H. R. Aubrey  
 Hokianga—S. W. Von Sturmer  
 Waimate and Russell—E. Williams  
 Kaipara—J. Rogan  
 Waikato—W. N. Searanoke  
 Raglan—W. Harsant  
 Tauranga—J. M. Roberts  
 Coromandel—J. Keddell  
 Shortland—W. Fraser  
 Maketu—F. E. Hamlin  
 Opoiki—H. W. Brabant  
 Poverty Bay—S. Locke, W. K. Nesbitt, and J. H. Campbell  
 Taupo—S. Locke and D. Scannell  
 New Plymouth—H. E. Kenny  
 Wellington—J. O. Crawford  
 Wanganui—J. T. Edwards  
 Patea—H. F. Turner  
 Upper Wanganui—R. W. Woon  
 Marton, &c.—W. J. Willis  
 Wairarapa—H. S. Wardell  
 Napier—H. B. Sealy  
 Wairoa—F. F. Ormond  
 Nelson—L. Broad  
 Collingwood—F. Guinness  
 Westport—J. Giles  
 Reefton—O. Broad  
 Cobden—O. Whiteford  
 Blenheim—S. L. Muller  
 Picton—J. Allen  
 Havelock—W. Whitehorn  
 Christchurch—O. O. Bowen  
 Lyttelton—W. Donald  
 Kaiapoi—G. L. Mellish  
 Akaroa—Justin Aylmer  
 Timaru—B. Woolcombe  
 Hokitika—G. G. FitzGerald  
 Greymouth—W. H. Revell  
 Okarito—M. Price  
 Dunedin—J. Bathgate and I. N. Watt  
 Port Chalmers—A. R. O. Strode  
 Oamaru—T. W. Parker

*Resident Magistrates—continued.*

Hawksbury—J. W. Murdoch  
 Tokomairiro—J. P. Maitland  
 Lawrence—E. H. Carew  
 Arrowtown—H. A. Stratford  
 Switzers—J. N. Wood  
 Queenstown—R. Beetham  
 Clyde—W. L. Simpson  
 Naseby—H. W. Robinson  
 Invercargill and Riverton—H. McCulloch  
 Orepuki—H. Rogers  
 Chatham Islands—S. Deighton  
 Stewart's Island—J. B. Greig.

*Sheriffs—*

Auckland—H. C. Balneavis  
 Taranaki—  
 Hawke's Bay—J. T. Tylee  
 Wellington—J. O. Crawford  
 Wairarapa—H. S. Wardell  
 Wanganui—J. T. Edwards  
 Nelson—L. Broad  
 Marlborough—S. L. Muller  
 Canterbury—A. Back  
 Westland—G. G. FitzGerald  
 Otago—I. N. Watt  
 Southland—H. McCulloch.

*Crown Solicitors—*

Auckland—F. M. P. Brookfield  
 Taranaki—A. Standish  
 Hawke's Bay—J. N. Wilson  
 Wellington—C. B. Izard  
 Wanganui—O. B. Borlase  
 Nelson—H. Adams  
 Canterbury—T. S. Duncan  
 Westland—S. M. South  
 Otago—B. O. Haggitt  
 Southland—T. M. Macdonald.

*Crown Prosecutors—*

Westland—S. M. South  
 Westland North—J. B. Fisher  
 Timaru—J. W. White  
 Oamaru—T. W. Hislop  
 Tokomairiro—W. Taylor.

## DEPUTY COMMISSIONERS OF STAMPS.

Auckland—T. Kissling  
 Taranaki—A. S. Douglas  
 Napier—Hanson Turton  
 Nelson—E. W. Bunny  
 Marlborough—J. D. Bamford  
 Canterbury—T. W. Maude  
 Westland—J. M. Batham  
 Dunedin—E. ff. Ward  
 Southland—W. Russell.

## CUSTOMS.

*Secretary and Inspector—*  
 Wm. Seed.

## CUSTOMS—continued.

*Collectors of Customs—*

Auckland—T. Hill  
 Thames—H. F. Andrews  
 Wangarei—R. H. Aubrey  
 Tauranga—D. McKellar  
 Poverty Bay—G. F. Harris  
 New Plymouth—R. Chilman  
 Wellington—H. S. McKellar  
 Wanganui—J. G. Woon  
 Napier—J. M. Tabuteau  
 Nelson—D. Johnston  
 Westport—(Vacant)  
 Greymouth—D. Lundon  
 Picton—J. Allen  
 Lyttelton and Christchurch—W. Mills  
 Hokitika—E. Patton  
 Dunedin—J. Hackworth  
 Invercargill and Bluff Harbour—A. J. Elles.

*Sub-Collectors of Customs and Officers in Charge of Ports.*

Mongonui—E. W. Patieson (acting)  
 Onehunga—H. N. Brower  
 Hokianga—S. Von Sturmer, officer in charge  
 Havelock—W. Whitehorn                   "  
 Kaikoura—J. Goodall                   "  
 Russell—E. B. Laing                   "  
 Wairau—J. Barleyman                   "  
 Okarito—R. J. La Nauze, Sub-Collector  
 Akaroa—R. A. Buchanan, officer in charge  
 Timaru—C. E. Cooper, Sub-Collector  
 Oamaru—T. W. Parker                   "  
 Riverton—B. Bailey, officer in charge  
 Chatham Islands—S. Deighton, Sub-Collector  
 Stewart's Island—J. B. Greig, Coast-waiter.

## HEAD POSTMASTERS.

Auckland—S. B. Biss  
 Thames—E. Cook  
 Taranaki—L. Von Rotter  
 Hawke's Bay—John Grubb  
 Wellington—E. D. Butts  
 Marlborough—J. F. Winstanley  
 Nelson—Sydney J. Dick  
 Canterbury—J. J. FitzGibbon  
 Otago—Archibald Barr  
 Southland—R. Kaye  
 Hokitika—R. Kirton  
 Greymouth—J. F. McBeth

## COMMISSIONERS OF CROWN LANDS.

Auckland—D. A. Tole  
 Taranaki—O. D. Whitcombe  
 Wellington—J. G. Holdsworth  
 Hawke's Bay—H. B. Sealy

## COMMISSIONERS OF CROWN LANDS—cont.

Nelson—H. O. Daniell  
 Marlborough—O. Goulter  
 Canterbury—W. G. Brittan  
 Otago—J. T. Thomson  
 Southland—W. H. Pearson  
 Westland—G. G. Fitzgerald.

## ARMED CONSTABULARY.

*Commissioner—*

William Moule.

*Chief Clerk and Accountant—*

James G. Fox.

*Clerk—*

James J. Stevenson.

*Storekeeper—*

Samuel C. Anderson.

*Inspectors, 1st Class—*

William O. Lyon  
 John H. H. St. John  
 John M. Roberts  
 Arthur Tuke  
 Thomas Broham  
 David Scannell  
 Henry F. Turner.

*Inspectors, 2nd Class—*

John B. Thomson.

*Sub-Inspectors, 1st Class—*

William Olmo  
 William A. Richardson  
 Forster Y. Goring  
 Frederic O. Rowan  
 Walter E. Gudgeon  
 William J. Gundry  
 Frederick J. W. Gascoigne  
 Sydney A. B. Chapel  
 Thomas Withers  
 William H. Northcroft  
 Henry C. Morrison  
 Arthur A. Crapp  
 Thomas N. B. Kenny  
 Robert Bullen  
 John R. Watts.

*Sub-Inspectors, 2nd Class—*

Arthur S. B. Forster  
 Frederick O. Smith  
 Charles W. Ferris  
 Stewart Nowall  
 Alexander H. McLean  
 John T. Marshall  
 Thomas Hackett.

*Instructor of Musketry—*

William G. Stack.

*Surgeons—*

John Caroy  
 Patrick J. O'Carroll.



ARMED CONSTABULARY—*continued.*

*Assistant-Surgeons—*

Frederick W. Armitage  
William L. Jackson  
Samuel Walker.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS.

*Auckland.*

Superintendent—His Honor John Williamson, M.H.R.

Executive Council—Provincial Secretary, John Sheehan, M.H.R.; Provincial Solicitor, A. Beveridge; Provincial Treasurer, G. M. Reid; without office, P. Dignan.

*Taranaki.*

Superintendent—His Honor Frederick Alonzo Carrington, M.H.R. (without Executive).

*Hawke's Bay.*

Superintendent—His Honor John Davies Ormond, M.H.R. (without Executive).

*Wellington.*

Superintendent—His Honor William Fitzherbert, O.M.G., M.H.R.

Executive Council—Provincial Secretary and Treasurer, Henry Bunny, M.H.R.; without office, George Hunter, M.H.R., W. H. Watt.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS—*continued.*

*Nelson.*

Superintendent—His Honor Oswald Curtis, M.H.R.

Executive Council—Provincial Secretary, Alfred Greenfield; Provincial Treasurer, Joseph Shephard; Provincial Solicitor, Albert Pitt.

*Westland.*

Superintendent—His Honor James Alexander Bonar, M.L.O. (without Executive).

*Marlborough.*

Superintendent—His Honor Arthur Penrose Seymour, M.H.R. (without Executive).

*Canterbury.*

Superintendent—His Honor William Rolleston, M.H.R.

Executive Council—President, William Montgomery; Provincial Secretary, Edward Jollie; Secretary for Public Works, T. W. Maude; Provincial Solicitor, T. E. Joynt.

*Otago.*

Superintendent—His Honor James Macandrew, M.H.R.

Executive Council—Provincial Secretary, Donald Reid; Provincial Treasurer, George Turnbull; Provincial Solicitor, R. Stout; without office, Dr. Webster, Mr. Lumsden.

## THE PROVINCES.

SOUTH ISLAND	...	{ OTAGO. CANTERBURY. WESTLAND. MARLBOROUGH. NELSON.	NORTH ISLAND	{ WELLINGTON. HAWKE'S BAY. TARANAKI. AUCKLAND.
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## THE PROVINCE OF OTAGO.

## EARLY HISTORY OF THE PROVINCE.

THE portion of the Middle Island of New Zealand known as the Province of Otago, was, previous to the arrival of the first immigrants, occupied by a few white men engaged in pastoral or whaling pursuits, and by a small number of Natives. In 1840, a missionary from Sydney was located at Waikouaiti, where a small settlement had been established, and his charge extended to the south of the Clutha, a few individuals being sparsely settled there. Otago was originated as a special settlement, and a block of 400,000 acres having been purchased from the New Zealand Company, the carrying out of the experiment was entrusted to a committee of laymen belonging to or sympathizing with the Free Church of Scotland. The Association, as the scheme was named, despatched the ships "Philip Laing" and "John Wieleliff" with the first emigrants from Britain; both vessels arriving safely in March, 1848. At that early period, the navigation of the south portion of the Colony was considered dangerous, as thoroughly reliable charts did not exist, and the coast was known only to the few whalers on the station. The prospects were not very cheering to those harbingers of the present community, and doubtless the hearts of many of them failed them, while sailing up the harbour, on seeing on both sides steep hills densely wooded to their summits, without a patch of open land except the barren sands at the Maori settlement. The discomfort of being conveyed in open boats, along with their household effects, from Port Chalmers, and landed on the shores of the town of Dunedin, its surface an entanglement of scrub

and flax, without a roof to cover or protect them or a known face to welcome them, and the dread uncertainty as to how or where provisions could be obtained until they could grow their own, the time of their arrival being near the beginning of winter, must all have tended to damp their enthusiasm. Now-a-days, such doubts or discomforts cannot exist. Accurate charts and splendid lighthouses along the coast command the mariner's confidence; and on arrival at the Heads, a powerful steamer is ready to tow the immigrant ship up the harbour, both sides of which are now, to the hill tops, studded with snug homes and luxuriant clearings. On the ship berthing at Port Chalmers or the Bluff, the train carries the passengers either to Dunedin or Invercargill, both handsome cities, replete with comfort, where anxiously-expectant friends, acquaintances, or employers anxious to employ labour, and to whom the news of the arrival of the ship has been flashed by the telegraph, are waiting to receive the strangers either with a hearty friendship's welcome or a profitable business engagement.

The pioneers of the settlement were neither daunted nor discouraged by their difficulties. Bracing themselves to suffer hardships, to endure fatigues, to do their duty, they did it nobly and well, a fact attested by the solid foundation on which the institutions of the Province rest, the character the settlers have gained, and the success which has attended their efforts.

The preliminary labour of clearing the land and building houses—some of them as primitive as unskilled hands could make them—being so far effected, moral and intellectual requirements were at once at-

tended to. On the first day of September, 1848, the first public building, to be used as a church and school, was opened, the average attendance of scholars being forty, although on some days it reached seventy. This was under the auspices of the Association and connected with the Free Church. A few months later, the first newspaper, the *Otago News*, was published, and in May, 1849, a public library was opened. Following in close succession, building societies were started, and a Mechanics' Institute, which has now grown into the flourishing and highly-valued Athenæum, with its library, reading, and class rooms.

At the close of the first year of the settlement, the population consisted of:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Town of Dunedin ...	210	204	414
Port Chalmers ...	28	10	38
Country ...	168	105	263
Total ...	426	319	745
The Customs Revenue was ..	£1,259. 5s. 2d		
Expenditure... ..	£2053. 3s. 7d.		

Notwithstanding the visible signs of material progress, and the means for mental improvement which were provided, elements of discord existed in the young community; and, judging from the newspapers, and other documents, the strife was a hard and bitter one, the questions in dispute being,—

1. Was the settlement to continue a class one?

2. Were the soil and climate suited for agriculture?

The utter impracticability of the first was shown ere it was fairly put in operation, a few months bringing it to a sudden termination.

The *News* took a strong position with reference to the second question, maintaining that Otago was not suited for the growth of cereals—and certainly there was a show of reason for this view, as little was done to test the soil, settlers finding it easier to make a living by stock-raising than by cultivating—and several efforts were made to form a company to import flour. But a decided answer has been given in the affirmative, by the fact that to the very places from which it was intended to draw the supplies of breadstuffs for Otago, she now sends out of her abundance. The last ship which sailed to Sydney took a large quantity of flour and oatmeal, the produce and manufacture of the Province.

The settlement continued slowly but steadily to advance, receiving additions to its population both from the home country and the neighbouring colonies. A writer of the time says, "The impression became prevalent in Australia, that Otago will

become not only the greatest cattle district of New Zealand, but of the Pacific generally." Upon the retirement of the New Zealand Company, in 1850, and the granting of a constitution to the colony, Otago was erected into a Province, and its original boundaries were so extended as to include all the country south of the Waitaki.

The meeting of the first Provincial Council on 30th December, 1853, marks the first epoch in the history of Otago. Prior to this date, there was no responsibility for the conduct of public affairs. Now, there was a responsible body possessing considerable powers, and a largely-extended estate to administer. In his opening address, the superintendent said, "A return mail from the seat of government (Auckland) is just in the same category as a return from England, business in the meanwhile being in a state of abeyance and confusion. Meanwhile, it is our duty to do all that we can for the public good." How was this done? Assembled in a small, unpretending wooden building, described at the time as "one of the most elegant buildings in Dunedin, capable of containing from 80 to 100 people," and "an erection the like of which no other settlement in New Zealand could boast," the Council at once commenced business and proceeded to set their house in order. The monetary condition was "Treasury grant closed, land fund reduced to nil, and the Province left with two-thirds of the general revenue (£1,480) to do all for themselves and as they best can." What they had to do was, provide for expense of government, form roads and build bridges, attract immigration, attend to education, and open up communication with other Provinces and the outer world. To accomplish all these objects with an income of £2,000 a year must have been a pleasing task! Yet a determined start was made, and the Province began, and still continues, its onward march.

The governing machinery was at first neither extensive nor expensive; it has now assumed considerable proportions.

The principle of subsidizing local efforts for the construction of roads and bridges was adopted at the first meeting of the Council. There is scarcely a district which is not intersected and opened up by local roads, and the main roads formed and kept up by the Government render it safe and pleasant to travel in all directions. Some of the bridges by which the rivers are spanned combine great strength with elegant design. The only possible means of travelling or bringing goods to market in



early days was by bullock-sledges, accomplishing from ten to fifteen miles a day: wheeled vehicles could not get along. So well, however, was the forming of roads pushed on, that a stage coach began, in 1858, to run between Dunedin and Tokomairiro, a distance of thirty-six miles; and in a few years later the same mode of conveyance was established to all parts of the Province.

Immigration received the immediate and careful consideration of the Council. An ordinance was passed, appointing agencies in Edinburgh and London, to procure emigrants and arrange for their passages. The Edinburgh agency still exists, and has been the means of sending a large number of the inhabitants to this land. In addition to the permanent agencies, special agents were despatched to Australia and Britain, to put the attractions of the place before parties intending to emigrate, and the result was a large influx of suitable and much-needed population. A contract was also entered into with Messrs. P. Henderson and Co., of Glasgow, to establish a regular line of ships direct from the Clyde, which resulted in a complete success, and presents a picture of fortunate navigation having few parallels. During the seventeen years this contract has been in operation, about 250 ships have been sent from home carrying emigrants, and have loaded for home with cargo, every vessel arriving safely at her destination. Of all the passenger fleet trading between Great Britain and Otago since its settlement, only two have not been accounted for.

Intercolonial and provincial steam navigation soon pressed itself on the attention of the Council, as the produce for export and the requirements for import were becoming extensive; accordingly, a bonus for a steamer was offered, and the "Queen," a locally-owned vessel, which had been plying for a short time, was specially engaged to make the trip monthly between Melbourne and Port Chalmers. Additional steamers were soon obtained, and regular communication established. The produce of wool and grain increased so rapidly that vessels were laid on the berth to load for London direct with wool, and for Melbourne with grain and other products.

The price of money was a serious drawback to the progress of the Province, interest as high as 20 per cent. being required on loans where ample security for the principal was given. Monetary transactions were conducted through the storekeepers—not a very convenient method—until a branch of the Union Bank was opened in

1858. Now there are five different banks, having branches in all the centres of population, and money is so plentiful as to be obtained on good security at six per cent.

While carefully advancing in material prosperity, equal attention was paid to education and religious requirements. As the settlers spread themselves over the country, those in charge of ecclesiastical affairs provided additional churches, and brought out ministers to superintend them. The Council was also forward in making provision for the teaching of the young, and the education system of Otago, which has succeeded so well and been so deservedly praised, was initiated in the first session of that body.

The advantage of opening up the southern portion of the Province, in which there were large tracts of splendid land both clear and timbered, was early recognized, and sites for the towns of Campbelltown and Invercargill being fixed, the country was surveyed, and very soon a large number of sections were bought and settlers located thereon. Complaints were made by the inhabitants that this outlying district was not receiving its due share of attention from the authorities; and a memorial was, in terms of "The New Provinces Act, 1858," presented to the Colonial Government, requesting that the district might be detached from Otago and erected into a new Province. This was granted, and in 1861 the Province of Southland was created, with an area of 2,300,000 acres. Embarrassments, however, so accumulated on the little Province, that in 1870 it was found advisable to reunite it to Otago, which was done, and it now partakes of the general prosperity.

The discovery of the gold fields in 1861 may be considered the next epoch in this history. Rumours of the existence of gold had before this date been freely circulated; but until the discovery, by Gabriel Read, of the gully which bears his name, no payable workings had been opened up. The extraordinary richness of this gold field, together with the ease with which the gold was obtained, at first hardly obtained belief; but as specimens of the precious metal arrived in town day after day by trustworthy messengers, who were in hot haste to get back again, the fever became general, and every man, tradesman and storekeeper, left his occupation and was "off to the diggings." The report of this really rich gold field soon reached the adjacent Provinces and Colonies, and a great "rush" was the consequence—thousands arriving in a single day. For a time, other occupa-

tions were forgotten; but the excitement gradually subsided; the lucky digger having a good many pounds to his credit, and high prices ruling for every article that could be raised, soon induced many to return to their legitimate industries, and leave the more precarious trade of gold-finding to men who followed it as their profession. The discovery of the Tuapeka gold field was followed, in 1862, by the Dunstan, the Lakes, Nokomai, and several others, which have proved to be very valuable, and afford employment to a large number of men. The portion of the Province in which the gold fields are situated had hitherto been an almost unknown country, and to the energy and enterprise of the gold-seeker the credit is due of opening it up much sooner than it would other-

wise have been. The risk these hardy men undertook deserved reward, as the result of their efforts has been of incalculable advantage to Otago. The quantity of gold exported from the Province up to March 31, 1874, was 3,257,864 oz. and its value, £12,762,892.

A short summary of the social condition of the Province will form an appropriate finish to this chapter. Taking the labour and cost of living questions first, it is found that from the earliest days of the settlement the working men insisted on the eight hours' system, carried their point, and have been able to maintain it up to the present time. When extra hours are worked, extra pay must follow. The subjoined table will show the comparative rates of pay and prices of provisions:—

	1850.	1860.	1873.
Beef, per lb. ... ..	6½d. to 7d.	7d. to 9d.	4½d. to 7d.
Bread, per 4 lb. loaf ... ..	9d.	1s.	5½d. to 6d.
Butter, per lb. ... ..	1s. 9d. to 2s.	1s. 10d. to 2s. 2d.	8d. to 1s.
Candles, „ ... ..	8d.	1s. to 1s. 2d.	8d. to 8½d.
Cheese, „ ... ..	1s. to 1s. 6d.	1s. 4d.	7d. to 1s.
Coffee, „ ... ..	1s. 4d. to 1s. 6d.	1s. 9d.	1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d.
Eggs, per dozen .. ...	1s. 6d. to 2s.	2s.	1s. 2d. to 1s. 3d.
Flour, per 100 lb. ... ..	13s. to 17s.	25s. to 28s.	12s. to 14s.
Firewood, per cord ... ..	14s. to 18s.	26s.	18s.
Milk, per quart ... ..	4d.	7d.	5d.
Mutton, per lb. ... ..	6d. to 7d.	7d. to 8d.	3d. to 5d.
Pork, „ ... ..	6d. to 8d.	6d. to 8d.	4d. to 6d.
Potatoes, per ton ... ..	140s.	120s.	80s.
Sugar, per lb. ... ..	4d. to 6d.	6d.	4d. to 6d.
Tea, „ ... ..	2s. to 2s. 6d.	3s. to 3s. 6d.	2s. 9d. to 3s. 3d.
Timber, per 100 feet... ..	16s. to 20s.	20s.	10s. to 20s.
Wages—			
Mechanics, per day ... ..	5s. to 7s.	9s. to 10s.	12s. to 15s.
Labourers, „ ... ..	3s. to 4s.	6s. to 7s.	8s. to 10s.

Dwelling-houses were always scarce and commanded high rents. To overcome this difficulty, and enable every man to become his own landlord, the first building society was started early in 1850, and has fulfilled in every respect the expectations of its promoters, and done an immense amount of good. These societies have continued to multiply and increase.

To make life as pleasant as possible in the small community, holidays were kept; clubs to promote horse-racing, cricket, and other healthful games were formed; many enjoyable evenings were spent at balls and music parties; and lectures were regularly delivered by the leading men, in addition to the advantages of a public library and Mechanics' Institute.

A gaol was one of the institutions the early settlers found provided for them on their arrival, although its utility was very doubtful for a specially-selected community; and in 1850, a Judge of the Supreme Court for Otago was appointed at a salary of £800 a year. Almost all the prisoners confined in the gaol up till the period of the gold discovery, were either runaway sailors or committed for trivial offences; and the honest old gaoler had the duties of a father to perform, rather than those of an officer of justice. Even since the golden era, crimes of great enormity have been extremely few, considering the promiscuous character of the new arrivals. No doubt, daring offences were perpetrated, but the number was comparatively small. The natural features of



the country did undoubtedly contribute to this result, as the possibility of concealment or escape was a slender one; but the principal preventive of crime was the thoroughly efficient police force which was organized immediately on the gold fields being declared. This force has elicited the highest praise from the Supreme Court Judges as well as from the neighbouring Provinces; and, it is gratifying to add that it still continues to merit the same character for steadiness, carefulness, discipline, and moderation.

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE PROVINCE.

Otago is in length about 160 miles, and in breadth 195 miles, and is estimated to contain 15,500,000 acres. It may be said to possess every description of scenery, both along the coast line and in the interior, the features being eminently of a Scottish type, whilst the names given to places have strongly stamped this character. Along the eastern and southern coast line, the principal harbour is Otago, which is a long arm of the sea, into which vessels of very heavy draught can enter with safety. Steam tugs are always at command, should the wind prove adverse. The channel to Port Chalmers is somewhat winding, but, reaching the port, a large fleet can lie at the piers, or anchor in the different bays, in smooth water and under shelter of the land. Bluff Harbour, the first port of arrival and last of departure for the Suez mail steamers, is a safe one for vessels of any tonnage. The other harbours are chiefly used for coasting vessels. The west coast is a succession of sounds or inlets, some of them of immense size, with great depth of water, easily taken, and quite landlocked; but as this portion of the province has yet to be settled, a more detailed account need not be given.

All the principal rivers discharge on the east and south coasts, several of them being navigable for many miles, by coasting steamers and vessels. Their lengths, compared with the size of the province, together with the volume of water they discharge, are hardly credible. The principal one is the Clutha, estimated at 220 miles in length, having its source north of the Wanaka Lake, at a height of 974 ft. above the sea-level, and calculated by the late Mr. Balfour, marine engineer, to discharge 1,000,000 cubic feet of water per minute. The quantity of water is greater and its temperature lower during summer than winter, this being caused by the melting of the snows on the western ranges of mountains. Several tributaries flow into the Clutha, the most notable being the Pomahaka, Manuherikia, Cardrona, and Kawarau, the latter draining

Lake Wakatipu. The Taieri River flows through the plain of the same name, and is a sluggish stream for a large portion of its course. It is reckoned as 160 miles long, although the distance from its source to its mouth, as the crow flies, is not above 45 miles. The Mataura is 120 miles in length, the Oreti 130, and the Waiau and Mataura, by which Lakes Manipuri, Te Anau, and Mavora are drained, about 140 miles. The Waitaki, flowing eastward 130 miles, and the Awarua flowing westward, form the northern boundary of the Province.

Lakes are numerous, and some of them of large extent: in the north, the Wanaka, covering 75 square miles, and the Hawea 48; in the south-east, the Waihola and Waipori, 5½, the Tuakitoto and Kaitangata, 3½; in the interior, the Wakatipu, 112, and the Manipuri, 36; and in the west, Te Anau, 132, and M'Kerrow or Kakapo, 10 square miles.

Mountain-ranges traverse the Province from north to south generally; the backbone lying near the west coast; thus accounting for the easterly flow of the rivers. The principal peaks in different directions are Mount Aspiring 9,049, Earnslaw 9,200, Ben Nevis 7,650, Titara 5,643, Hamilton 4,674, Maungatua, 2,980 ft. in height. The snow line is 8,000 ft.; but all the mountains attaining this height are on the west side.

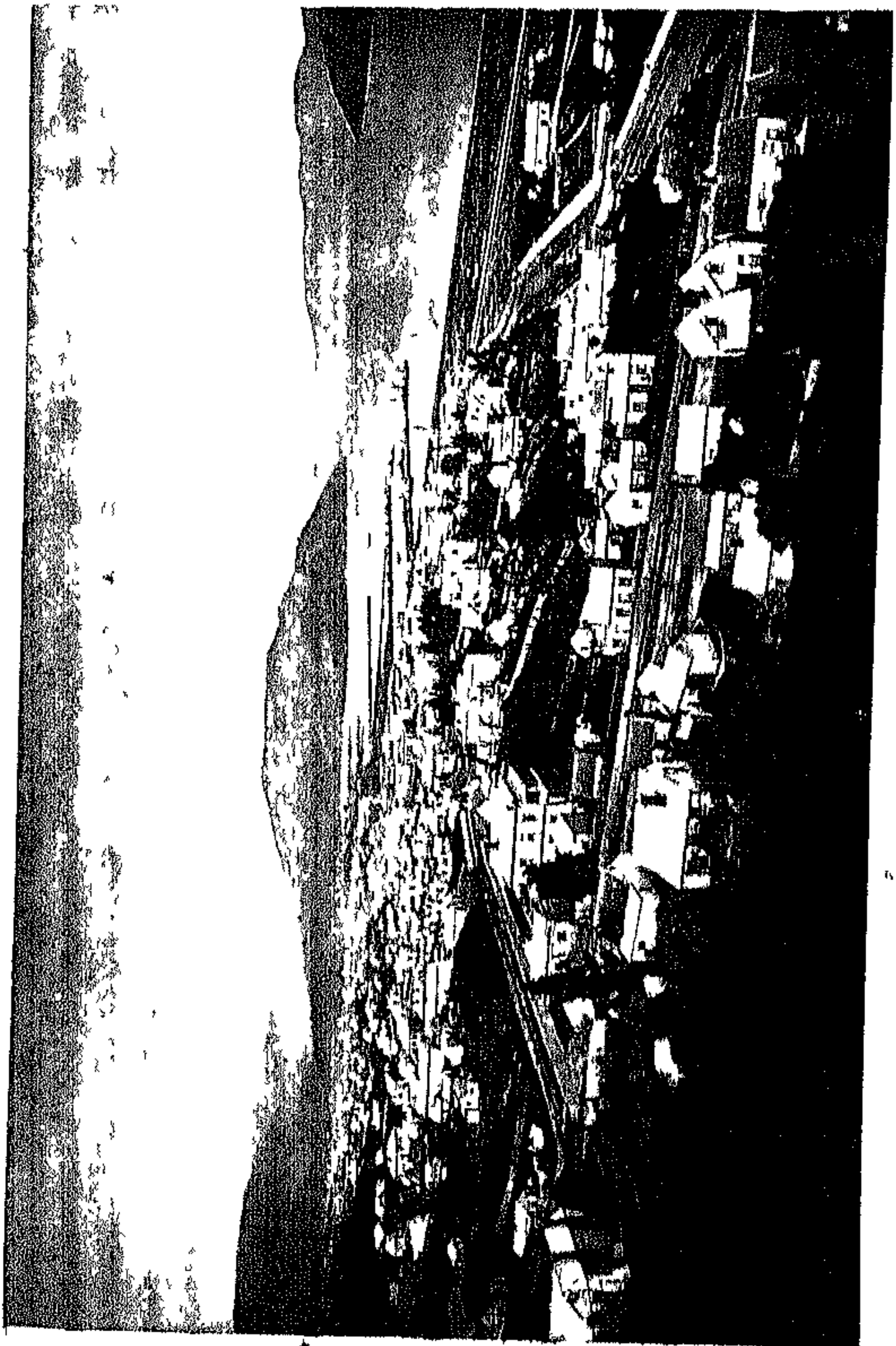
Although the forests handy to market or a shipping port have to a large extent been thinned out, there are still immense tracts which have not been touched, for want of access; but now that roads and railways are bringing them within reach, a supply of timber for railway, building, and other purposes, sufficient to meet the demand for many years to come, can readily be obtained. Longwood and Waima forests alone contain upwards of 1,000 square miles, and almost the entire western sea-board is a dense bush of most valuable timber.

The area of land fitted for agricultural pursuits is computed at 9,000,000 acres, and is distributed in every direction. From the northern boundary (the Waitaki River), south to Dunedin, a distance of about eighty miles, and from the coast inland, an average breadth of forty miles, the land consists of extensive plains and downs, with here and there a few hill ranges, some of the peaks of which rise to 4,000 ft.; but generally the spurs and ridges are well rounded and of easy slope. Further in the interior are the Upper Taieri, thirty miles long by fifteen broad; Upper Waitaki, twenty by fifteen; Upper Clutha, forty by ten; Manuherikia, forty by eight; Ida, thirty by six;—all magnificent plains, besides other valleys of





DUNEDIN, FROM THE BAY.





smaller extent but of great fertility. South from Dunedin to the Otaheke River, and thence to the Mataura, after crossing Saddle Hill, which is cultivated to its summit, the long reach of the Taieri, Tokomairiro, Otaheke, and Mataura plains extend for about 120 miles, with a breadth varying from ten to forty miles, the hills on either side, not of great height, noted for their long rounded or flat-topped spurs and rich sloping gullies. From the Mataura south to the ocean and west to the Waiau River, a breadth of sixty miles, and of similar length, the country is almost a dead level, occasionally interrupted by hills of moderate elevation. The interior, in which the gold fields are principally situate, is much more mountainous and broken, but possesses fine straths and glens, admirably adapted for the labours of the husbandman.

The peculiarly healthy character of the climate is attested by the fact of so many strong, active children seen in all directions, their stout limbs and ruddy countenances a subject of general remark by strangers visiting the Province.

Originally, the Province was divided into two counties of almost equal area, the 169th degree of east longitude being the boundary. They were named Bruce and Wallace respectively. It is now parcelled out for different purposes, either political, social, or industrial. The political divisions are, first, for the election of Representatives in the General Assembly, or Colonial Parliament, numbering eighteen, and returning nineteen members. The next is for the election of the members of the Provincial Council, numbering thirty-four districts, with forty-six members. The social divisions are the educational districts (elsewhere alluded to) and Road Board districts, of which there are forty-six. The powers of the road trustees are similar to those of Town Councils. These boards have effected a great amount of good in their respective districts, and are considered one of the best institutions of Otago. The industrial districts are—First, agricultural, known as hundreds, numbering thirty-six, and containing in the aggregate over 2,000,000 acres. Keeping pace with the demand for land for settlement, new hundreds are proclaimed, and these are taken from the second industrial division, namely, pastoral land or runs. The occupier of land on lease for grazing purposes must fall back before the settler, who has the prior and superior claim, and which cannot be overlooked. Gold-digging is the next but not the least important industrial division to be noticed. There are now ten gold fields,

embracing an area of 10,000 square miles, not by any means all taken up for digging pursuits, but over which the gold-seeker is at liberty to prospect, and to "spot" any claim he may fancy a payable one. Within the gold fields, what is termed agricultural leases can be obtained; which means that a piece of land known not to be auriferous can be selected, fenced, improved, and settled on, at a yearly rent of 2s. 6d. an acre, and at the end of the third year it can be purchased at 20s. an acre.

The towns of this Province next claim notice. There are about seventy recorded on the map, and of these over forty contain a number of inhabitants. Sixteen of them have become of so much importance as to possess a mayor and council for the management of their affairs, and eleven of these incorporated towns can boast of having newspapers published in them. The sites for all the towns have been selected in localities where special industries were likely to be established, or at points of the main roads considered suitable. A short description will be given of the principal ones.

Dunedin, being the largest and most important city, not only in the Province, but in the Colony, first demands attention. It stretches along the head of the bay, and has a north-east aspect. A large number of the dwelling-houses are built on the hills embraced within the boundaries, and the fine foliage trees with which they are in general surrounded, give a highly picturesque appearance to the scene. Decidedly the best view is obtained in approaching by water. As the prospect is opened up, a pleasing impression is made on the visitor; and on nearing the jetty, the numerous chimney-stacks, and the sound of many hammers, give the idea of busy industry. Roads from all parts of the Province converge on Dunedin as the capital: the main north road by the North-east Valley; the main south road by Caversham; the road to the interior by Stuart-street; MacLaggan-street; Pine Hill; the road to Otago Heads by the Peninsula. By all these routes very fine views of different parts of the city are obtained. The area is 865 acres. There are 99 streets, each 60 ft. wide, the greater number being metalled, having curbed and asphalted pavements, and well lighted with gas. The length of Princess-street and George-street, the one being a continuation of the other, is 2½ miles, or if the extension of the city through the suburbs of Kensington, Forbury, and St. Kilda is included, there is a straight line of street four miles in length, and



almost level. The longest from east to west is *High-street*, about one mile. In the centre of the city is the Octagon, and around the landward sides a belt of 560 acres is set apart for the recreation of the inhabitants. The banking establishments and retail houses are mostly in *Princes-street* and at the south end of *George-street*. Some of the shops would do credit to *Princes-street, Edinburgh*, after which city *Dunedin* and its streets are named. The wholesale houses are mostly situated in some of the quieter streets, but are gradually being attracted closer to the terminus of the railway. The timber and iron works are distributed to the north and south of the Octagon. A considerable proportion of the industries of the Province have their principal seat in *Dunedin*. The public buildings are handsome and numerous: amongst others may be mentioned the University, High School, Custom House, Post Office and Provincial Government Buildings, Hospital, Lunatic Asylum, Benevolent Asylum, Masonic Hall, Caledonian Grand Stand, churches, particularly the First Church (pronounced the finest ecclesiastical edifice south of the equator); the banks, warehouses, and free and bonded stores; and as private buildings, the residences of the principal citizens. The places of resort for information, recreation, or amusement are the Athenæum (with its reading-room and extensive library), the Museum, Botanical Gardens and Acclimatization Grounds, the Princess and the Queen's theatres, music and concert halls, recreation-grounds north and south, race-course, and public baths. The corporation affairs are managed by a mayor and councillors, whose attention is chiefly occupied at present in promoting measures for the sanitary improvement of the city, and in arranging for a Town Hall, with offices attached, intended to be the finest structure in the city, and to cost £30,000. The police arrangements are part of the system in force throughout the Province, being under the charge of the Provincial Government, by whom the expenses are defrayed. By private companies a good supply of excellent water and gas is laid through all the streets and into most of the houses. Two morning papers and one evening paper are published daily, besides four weekly and seven monthly periodicals. The Chamber of Commerce, Association of Underwriters, Law Society, and others of a similar description, are important institutions. *Edina* has been distinguished by the name of "Modern Athens"; *Dunedin*, with its salubrious climate, its attractive scenery,

its elegant buildings, its enterprising citizens, its noble institutions, and its comprehensive provision for a liberal and classical education, bids fair to claim the title of the "Athens of the South." The population at the census, February 1871, was 14,857; at the census 1st March, 1874, the number was over 18,500; showing an increase of about 3,700 in the three years. If the suburbs are included, the number will amount to 26,000.

Port Chalmers is the principal seaport-town of the Province. It is built on a peninsula jutting into the harbour, half-way between the Heads and *Dunedin*, and at it a great proportion of the commerce is conducted. It claims to be the oldest town in the settlement. At the railway pier and in the stream, there are always large vessels loading for or discharging from different parts of the world. The large addition which is being made to the pier will give increased facilities for trade; and the patent slip, floating dock, and stone graving-dock (the only one in the Colony—measuring 328 ft. by 50 ft. in width, having 22 ft. of water on the sill), make it an attraction for ships requiring cleaning and repairs. The time-ball by which chronometers are adjusted is dropped daily at noon, and is erected, along with the signal-station, on the hill on the west side of the town. The building of wooden vessels, together with ships' smithwork, are the staple industries of the town; and the vicinity is famous for a hard blue stone, much used for house-building. A start has also been made in sawing a flag-stone suitable for footpaths and courtyards. There are several substantially-built churches, a grammar-school, banks, stores, and hotels. Gas has already been introduced, and the Town Council are arranging for a water-supply. The population, including sailors on board the shipping, in March, 1874, was 2,887.

Oamaru, in the extreme north, is decidedly the maritime town of Otago. It is situated on a terrace overlooking the Southern Ocean. The vast expanse of water, and the healthy and refreshing atmosphere, render the locality an invigorating one. The bay or roadstead offers inducements for sea-bathing which will not be overlooked, and in a short time bathing-machines, with all their appliances, will be profitably engaged here. It is the shipping port of the largest pastoral and agricultural, and perhaps mineral, districts in the Province. The quantity of wool, wheat, oats, barley, and grass seed produced in the district around is very great; and the quality may be judged, when it is stated that flour with

the Oamaru brand commands the highest price in the market. The building-stone is unrivalled, and can be got in any quantity. Limestone, cement, pipeclay, and coal exist in abundance; and the substantial breakwater which is being rapidly built, will greatly facilitate shipment, and offer shelter in any weather to coasting vessels. In building the breakwater, concrete blocks, weighing over 30 tons, are used. These are made on the shore, lifted, carried, and placed in position by a steam crane made in Dunedin, only two or three men being required in the operation. The town has an imposing appearance from the sea. The streets are wide and regular; and several fine buildings substantially constructed and profusely ornamented with stone from the vicinity, confirm the impression when one has landed. As regards population, it is the second town of the Province, the number in 1874 being 2,829.

Palmerston is situated at the junction of the Dunstan Road with the main North Road, and is rapidly rising into importance. Hampden, Moeraki, and Waikouaiti are coastal towns, with fine country around them.

Southward from Dunedin, the first important town is Milton, near which the junction of the road and railway to the Tuapeka gold fields is made. Being in the centre of one of the oldest settled agricultural districts, and having energetic and persevering residents, it has become the most flourishing inland agricultural town in the Province. Agricultural implements, coach-building, lime-burning, brick and tile making, are the main industries. Glazed tiles are principally made in Milton, and the Corporation have effected great improvements in forming the streets and attending to sanitary matters. Population, 1,161.

Balclutha is a stirring township on the banks of the Clutha River, and is making strong efforts to overtake some of its older rivals. Population, 430. There is a very fine bridge, of wood, across the Clutha River at this point.

Invercargill is the principal town of the late Province of Southland, and is well placed near the head of the New River estuary. Some of the main streets are two chains in width, and all of them are laid off at right angles. Considerable advance is being made in the material and architecture of the buildings, and the merchants are possessed of great energy and perseverance. The first railway in Otago was constructed to connect this town with its shipping port at Bluff Harbour, a length of twenty miles.

The line was constructed under the Southland Provincial Government. A continuation of the railway for an additional twenty miles connects it with Winton, a splendid district of country, and branch lines are being pushed forward in other directions. Large quantities of wool and grain are produced, and are shipped direct from the Bluff to London and Melbourne. The extensive forests around the town give an immense trade in shipping timber to less-favoured localities. Nearly twelve million feet are sawn annually. Another feature of the trade is the export of preserved meats from the works at Woodlands. Two newspapers are published in the town. In 1871, the population was 1,952; in 1874, 2,484: increase, 532.

Riverton is a beautifully-situated town at the mouth of Jacob River. In addition to the local trade and the export of grain, seal-fishing occupies a considerable degree of attention, and the opening up of the Orepuki gold fields, and the immense timber forests adjacent, will give the town a considerable impetus.

The towns in the interior of the Province are for the most part in the centre of mining districts. Lawrence, on the Tuapeka gold field, was the first created. It is the seat of a considerable amount of industry, and its residents are alive to every opportunity of promoting its prosperity. In the Tuapeka district, the gold-mining is principally confined to what are called alluvial workings. Immense sums have been expended by the miners in bringing in water from distant streams, some of the races being twenty to forty miles in length, winding round hill-sides (which are often tunnelled), or carried across gullies by fluming or pipes. By means of the water, the face of the working is washed down, and all the soil carried away, leaving the stones behind, which must be removed, and the gold, which, being the heaviest metal, and in very small particles, is gathered with the refuse dirt at the bottom, and carefully separated by a process of washing. An idea of the quantity of water needed may be formed when it is stated that the height of the face to be washed down at the celebrated Blue Spur is 110 ft. by a width of 600 yards. To assist the work of the water, shafts are driven into the face, chambers formed, and large quantities of powder used for a single explosion, bringing down many thousand yards of stuff, which is all washed away. Many men are employed in mining here, whose supplies and material are furnished by the merchants in Lawrence. The town is well built, and, like all the Government towns, regularly

laid off, no street being less than a chain wide. There are a Grammar School, several churches, banks, Athenaeum, mills, breweries, hotels, and every other requisite.

Proceeding further into the interior from Lawrence, up the valley of the Clutha, the next towns of importance are Alexandra, at the junction of the Manuherikia River, a distance of sixty-eight miles; Clyde, on the banks of the Clutha, seven miles further on; and Cromwell, at the junction of the Kawarau, thirteen miles further. At the latter town, the Clutha is spanned by a suspension-bridge 350 ft. long, 15 ft. wide, and capable of sustaining a heavy traffic. The mining in these districts is of different descriptions. When the great river is low, its banks are stripped and the material carried to a higher level, where it is subsequently washed, the refuse carried back into the river, and then lost to sight. Often, the workmen unfortunately find that, without any warning, a month's hard work is in an hour or two lost, without the possibility of saving, by a sudden rise of the river sweeping all their stuff away. Another mode of gold-finding is dredging the bottom of the river by machinery, bringing the precious metal along with the silt to the surface, where it is saved. A novel dredging-machine has lately been built for this purpose, being a strong cigar-shaped tube, of iron, with an opening in the floor, in which four or six men can be placed. It is to be sunk to the bottom, and the inmates will collect the stuff, and work at it in their prison house, air being forced down to them from above to enable them to exist. Quartz-mining is still another method. In this case, the gold exists in the solid rock, which has to be blasted, sent to the surface, and there crushed to powder by powerful stamping machines driven by steam or water power. The veins of quartz run into the mountain-side or dip downwards; in either instance, hundreds of feet have often to be gone over in what is called "bringing the stone to grass," that is, to daylight. All these workings require skill and carefulness in carrying them on. Although the digger at times makes lucky finds, it is no more than he deserves for the energy and industry he has to exercise.

Proceeding onwards from Cromwell, and crossing the streams Roaring Meg and Gentle Annie, Arrowtown is reached after twenty-six miles, and Queenstown after forty. The latter is prettily situated on the shore of Lake Wakatipu. As in all the other towns, the residents here are doing their utmost to make their town attractive, each one trying to excel. The great dis-

tance from the early agricultural producing districts making carriage very expensive, caused the settlers here to try what they could do in raising grain. When gold miners first went into the Lake district, it was alleged that not even a potato could be grown there; but in fact, the district not only now produces much fine wheat, so that a very large flour-mill is kept constantly employed, but various fruits are cultivated, and they ripen earlier and better than in districts around Dunedin.

The other gold field towns, Hamilton and Naseby, are on the road from Dunstan to Palmerston. Each is a municipality, and vies with its neighbour in progress, both relying on gold for their prosperity.

#### KINDS OF LAND AND AVERAGE OF CROPS.

Otago is estimated to contain over 9,000,000 acres of land fit for agricultural purposes, and in addition, about 1,500,000 acres under forest, which when cleared will to a large extent be of especial value. The general character of the soil is of a fair average, while in several districts, north, middle, and south, it is very rich, strong, and deep, tempting the farmer to grow a succession of wheat crops without alternating or supplying the waste by manuring. This practice is not now followed to such an extent as formerly. There is, of course, a large amount of steep and broken country, but the great improvements that are being made in agricultural implements render the tillage of such land comparatively easy. Land which a few years ago was considered unfit to work, or unprofitable if wrought, is now readily taken up and proved to be light to plough, and to yield a good return.

Loams, clays, gravel, and peat, all resting on farmable subsoils, are similarly diversified as in Britain, but their virgin character and the influence of the temperature render them much superior in productiveness and less costly to work. Extensive plains, downs, straths, glens, and gently-sloping hill-sides, none of them requiring much outlay for drainage, and all of splendid soil, fitted to produce any crops suited for a temperate climate, are spread over the province, and only await the energy of the husbandman, to whom they will yield a generous return.

The best proof of the fertility of the soil is afforded by practical tests. The produce, as ascertained by careful returns, for crop 1872-73, from the 3,705 holdings or farms in the Province, gives as the average yield per acre—wheat, 29½; oats, 30½; barley, 27 bushels; potatoes, 5½ tons.



For Crop 1873-74, the return is as follows:—

## LAND.

No. of Holdings.	Acres broken up not under Crop.	In Wheat.		In Oats.		In Barley.		In Potatoes.	
		Acres.	Bushels.	Acres.	Bushels.	Acres.	Bushels.	Acres.	Tons.
3,913	41,742½	50,068½	1,489,711	60,204½	2,002,794	8,890½	264,007	3,303½	15,436½
Average } per acre }	...	...	29½	...	33½	...	29½	...	4½

Authoritative returns for other crops are not obtainable, but are known to be equally satisfactory.

## LAND REGULATIONS.

Public—or as they are called, “waste”—lands are sold on several principles. The original and still the leading method is the hundred system, which means a large piece of agricultural country selected within given boundaries, and surveyed into sections of from 50 up to 200 acres. On this being completed, the land is declared open for application on a day fixed by advertisement, and at the uniform price of £1 an acre. In making the application, a deposit of 10 per cent., or 2s. an acre, is paid; and if one applicant only puts in a claim for any number of sections, he is forthwith declared the purchaser, pays the balance of purchase-money within ten days, and gets a certificate of purchase, on which the Crown grant is issued. If more than one person applies for the same land on the same day, the sections so applied for are advertised for sale by auction, and the highest bidder becomes the purchaser. Only those who purchase land within a hundred have the privilege of running stock on the unsold portions; and a licence to depasture is issued according to a fixed scale, the cost being yearly 3s. 6d. a head for great cattle and 7d. a head for sheep. This assessment, after paying cost of collection, is applied to form and make roads within the hundred. The holder of land has the privilege of free grazing for a certain number of stock. After the expiry of seven years from the date of the proclamation of the hundred, any land remaining within it unsold may be put up to auction at 10s. an acre, and knocked down to the best bidder. There are no conditions attached to this system of sale, either as to the extent of

land one man can purchase, or as to residence or cultivation.

Another method of selling Crown lands, and one highly favourable to a man of small means who wishes to settle on and work the ground, is the deferred payment system. Blocks of land, not exceeding 5,000 acres in one block, or more than 30,000 acres in any one year, are selected, surveyed, and declared open for application. A lease or licence to occupy not more than 200 acres, at a yearly rent of 2s. 6d. an acre, payable half-yearly in advance, is issued, and the holder of the lease is bound not to sublet during its currency. He must within three years enclose the land with a substantial fence, and cultivate one-tenth part of it. Half the cost of fencing can be recovered from the adjoining occupier. On payment of the tenth year's rent, the land becomes the freehold property of the occupier.

An additional mode is, free grants to immigrants, whereby every man paying his own passage to New Zealand is entitled to £20 worth of land for himself, and, if he has a family, to a like portion for each adult member. Those who may be counted members of the family, and for whom the full amount of land can be claimed, are wife, child, grandchild, nephew, or niece over 14 years of age, and if under 14 years, land to the value of £10 can be claimed.

## LANDS OPEN FOR SALE.

The prevailing system of land sales as described, regulates the area of land in the market at one time for sale. Sometimes the demand is great, and sections are eagerly and rapidly bought up; thus causing for a short period a scarcity. But the delay is not such as to cause much inconvenience.

Several new hundreds are about to be proclaimed, and so soon as the classification of the land in the Southland district

is completed, which will be very soon, a large extent of first-class agricultural country will be open for sale.

The blocks set aside on the deferred payment principle comprise land of very superior quality, and it is expected that the area and number of such blocks will be greatly increased.

Immigrants claiming under the free-grant system have the whole unsold country open to them for selection; and when it is stated that country as good for settlement as any already taken up can be obtained, the inducement is very great, especially when it is considered that the facilities which the improved means of transit afford, give a value to the land which it did not formerly possess.

For pastoral purposes, very little new country is available; the expectation is, however, that when the leases at present held of very large runs expire, those runs will be subdivided, so that a greater number can engage in this pursuit, and make the Province show a larger return than it has yet done from this source. By the outlay of a little capital and labour, the carrying capacity for stock may be increased tenfold.

The original design of the settlement was to provide freeholds for all who were ready and willing to occupy and cultivate them. To a very large extent this plan has been carried out: still, it was impossible entirely to prevent speculation by those colonially called "Land Jobbers." Whether the land is in the hands of the Crown or of private parties, no legislation can prevent this trade. But holders of large estates, when they find a good opportunity, throw their properties into the market for sale, and if the prices offered show a good profit, a bargain is generally struck. There are no entail laws here, and land can be as easily and cheaply transferred as almost any other article.

There are constantly Crown properties for sale, in farms of from 200 to 300 acres. One of these specially deserves notice, viz., 8,000 acres in the Winton district. Higher class land could not be obtained anywhere. For strength, depth, and richness it cannot be surpassed. The Carso of Gowrie, the Lothians, or the finest agricultural districts of England or Ireland, do not excel it, and the climatic influences are as favourable as in the south of England. An inducement is held out to buyers by spreading the purchase-money over three years, at a reasonable rate of interest. Good practical farmers, who even now, with the high prices ruling for grain, are struggling hard to make both

ends meet, would, on such soil, with such advantages and so little cost for manures, soon become independent.

The holders of small freehold properties, say from 100 to 300 acres, are not, except in a few cases, disposed to let their farms. Farming is, and has been for some time, a profitable occupation—good prices and a ready market; and this accounts, to some extent, for the small number of farms in the market to be let. Occasionally such instances occur: these, however, must be held as the exception rather than the rule; and when they do occur, the amount of yearly rent demanded per acre is equal to the price at which the land was originally bought. It is a question for the new arrival to consider, whether he would not do better to secure a freehold at the upset price, although he would be longer in bringing produce to the market, than to pay a large rent for land in a condition ready to produce or already producing. In the first case, he has rougher work to undertake and more hardships to endure; but he has the satisfaction of being his own "laird," and of having no rent to pay. He has fresh, unused soil on which to commence work, and can arrange his farm to his own mind. The objection that the locality in which he can select land is at a greater distance from the market, is overcome by the fact that the railways now being constructed will make land situated at one hundred miles' distance more convenient of access than it was at ten miles' distance a few years ago, and the cost of carriage will also be less.

Besides the occasional "small farm to let," it is proposed by one or two companies, holders of large tracts of country which have been fenced, ploughed, and cropped, or laid down in grass, to cut them into ordinary sized farms, and to offer them on reasonable terms to approved tenants. To a considerable extent this will provide a supply to meet the demand which may arise.

#### PRICES OF PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

##### *Agricultural.*

Wheat, per bushel of 60 lb., 4s. 9d. to 5s.; flour, per ton of 2,000 lb., £11 to £13; oats, per bushel of 40 lb., 2s. 6d. to 4s.; oatmeal, per cwt., 15s. to 18s.; barley, per bushel of 60 lb., 4s. 3d. to 4s. 9d.; malt, per bushel, 8s. to 9s. 6d.; rye-grass seed, per bushel of 20 lb., 3s. 2d. to 6s.; rye-grass hay, per ton, £5; onion chaff, per ton, £4 to £6; onion hay, per ton, £3. 10s. to £5; potatoes, per ton, £3. 10s. to £4; turnips, &c., per ton, 25s. to 30s.; native flax, per ton, £14 to £18; rape-seed, 22s. per cwt.



*Pastoral.*

Wool, from 9½d. to 2s. 2d. ; hides, 4s. to 20s. each ; skins, 7d. to 5s. 9d. each ; beef, 20s. to 25s. per 100 lb. ; mutton, 2d. to 2½d. per lb. ; veal, 5d. to 7d. per lb.

*Manufactured.*

Leather, 1d. to 4d. per lb. ; bone dust, £6 to £7. 10s. per ton ; boots, 6s. per pair upwards ; flax rope, £40 to £44 ; preserved meats, 2½d. to 6½d. per lb. ; soap, per cwt., 18s. to 32s. ; clothing, from 25s. per suit upwards ; hats and caps, from 1s. to 21s. ; ploughs, single, double, and treble mounted, from £10 to £25 ; drays, single and double horse, £21 to £25 ; waggons, six to eight horse, £60 to £75 ; spring carts and buggies, £18 to £50 ; reaping machines, £30 upward ; chaff-cutters, £10 upward ; saddlery, riding, from £6 ; harness, carriers', £10 upward ; bricks, per 1,000, £2. 15s. to £3 ; tiles, per 1,000, 20s. to 40s. ; ale, per hhd., £4 to £7 ; porter, per hhd., £5. 10s. to £6 ; whisky, per gallon, in bond, 8s. to 9s. ; geneva, in bond, 6s. to 8s. 6d. ; aerated waters, per dozen, 2s. to 3s. ; compounds, per dozen, 8s. to 140s.

*Mineral.*

Coal, at pit mouth, 8s. to 11s. per ton ; gold, £3 to £3. 15s. per oz. ; lime, at kiln, 2s. per bushel.

*INDUSTRIES—ACTUAL AND POSSIBLE.*

The fish, great and small, which abound in the ocean around the coasts of the Province, have hitherto contributed very slightly to its prosperity in comparison with what they might have done. Strangers have been profitably pursuing, in these waters, the trade of whaling, and thus carrying away the profits which should have accrued to Otago. To organize and fit out a thoroughly efficient fleet of whalers would cost a comparatively small sum, as vessels and crews are at command. The suitability of the port for this trade has from the first been recognized, and in former times was made good use of ; but now, when the facilities it offers have been greatly increased, the trade has dwindled down to catching a few whales at the mouths of the harbours by means of whaleboats. It is proved that the whales have become much more numerous of late ; and if regulations were enacted and enforced against the indiscriminate slaughter to which they were subjected, they might yet become as plentiful as formerly.

Sealing, also, as a kindred occupation, merits notice. A few boats are at present engaged in this trade, chiefly hailing from the southern ports ; but it is capable of con-

siderable extension, the oil and skins yielding a good profit, and finding a ready market.

Curing small fish might be made a sure source of wealth to a large number of fishermen. Fish are very abundant, and, although somewhat different to those which frequent the British and Newfoundland banks, are, when properly cured, of first-rate quality, and there is a market for any quantity in adjacent countries. The method of curing adopted in Newfoundland might be suitable for some of the kinds of fish, the cost of salt being thus saved.

It is a question whether salt could not be produced here by evaporation at a cost less than that of the imported article.

Leaving the waters and turning to the land, the industries which present themselves to the enterprising colonist are numerous.

Glass-works for window-glass, bottles, and crystal are urgently required, and the requisite materials for the manufacture of all descriptions are plentiful and at hand. The Dunedin bottlers alone would require for their present trade from 300 to 400 dozen bottles a day ; and with the prospect of a trade embracing other colonies, India, and China, which is sure to be opened up, this quantity would be enormously increased.

Superior clay for pottery, delfware, and fire-bricks has been discovered in several localities, and at the present time a company is being formed to establish this trade at Green Island in connection with the collieries.

In addition to the branches carried on at the foundries, the casting of hollowware and fire-grates would be a profitable investment.

Roofing slate and flags for paving are imported to a large extent. In several districts stone adapted for the purpose can be procured, and these articles will, on the extension of the railways, become items of considerable production.

True granite of different colours abounds on the West Coast, and the ease with which it can be procured and shipped indicates that that portion of the Province will become famous for its quarries.

The natural products of the soil, and what it can be made to produce, open abundant prospects of labour to the skilful and industrious.

The large consumption of paper of all sorts which is daily going on, attracts attention to its manufacture as an industry not yet in operation ; and the bonus offered by the Government, and the facts that various tree fibres as well as a grass similar to *Espartero* are in abundance, both well adapted for the finer description of paper, and that the refuse from the flax-mills, which is valu-



able for the coarser sorts, can be had in plenty and at a cheap rate, point to this trade as one that must shortly be established. Preliminary steps have been taken to commence it.

Sugar-making from beetroot has long been pointed to as one specially suited for Otago. The clayey loams of the plains are eminently fitted for producing the root of the quality and size which experience has proved yields most saccharine matter, and the climate is equally favourable for maturing. Beet sufficient to carry on a large export trade, as well as supply the colonial demand, could easily be raised, and would prove a source of great profit to the agriculturist.

Another enterprise in which the Province must embark is the growth of flax and hemp. Every element of success exists, and there is only wanted skilful adaptation of labour to bring about a profitable result. It will not do for the farmers to confine their attention to the production of the ordinary grain crops alone, as these change so much in value. The growth of flax and hemp commends itself for their immediate adoption. The fibre which each produces is in constant demand both for home and foreign trade, and the prices usually ruling are highly remunerative. Besides the fibre, the seed of the flax yields a high price, and if not exported as seed it can be pressed so as to produce oil, much used by painters, and the residue be sent Home as cake for cattle-feeding.

Strong efforts are being made to start a woolpack and bagging manufactory, to bring the native flax into repute. If, in addition thereto, inducements were offered for the culture of hemp to be manufactured into fabrics, from coarse cordage and sailcloth to hand and table linen, a source of great wealth and industry would be opened up, for which the Province can supply every requisite except the labour, which might be obtained from the north of Ireland, where the flax industries are the staple of the country, and the east of Scotland, where flax and hemp goods are principally manufactured.

Growing rape for oil and feeding-cake could also be gone into by the farmer with confidence.

Clover seed is another product well worth attention. White clover particularly grows so luxuriantly and spontaneously as to be almost accounted a weed. Ripening early, and with the simple machinery needed for cleaning, a large quantity of seed could annually be produced for export.

Hops grow very freely and produce an abundant crop, whilst the steadily-increasing demand, and the prices ruling, are great inducements to holders of land in favour-

able localities to grow shelter to protect the vine from the gusts of wind which prevail during summer. It will take some years to grow a supply sufficient for the provincial trade: meanwhile, the introduction of a few hands acquainted with the growing, handling, and drying of this valuable plant would be advisable.

Chicory is another agricultural product which is largely imported, when it might be successfully cultivated.

The growth of trees whose bark is adapted for tanning purposes also claims attention. The Tasmanian wattles which chiefly contribute to this purpose, grow freely and quickly in the Province, and in a few years the bark alone would pay the planter well.

Dairy farming is another branch of industry needing development. Cheese factories with good management would produce a first-class reliable article, not only for the limited local consumption, but for other markets.

#### TIMBER.

In the south and west parts of the Province there are large and splendid forests, which, although not containing any true pines or conifers, produce wood very valuable for strength, durability, and the high polish it takes.

The trees most prized at present for railway and carpenter work are - Totara (from the Bluff Harbour hundreds of thousands of sleepers are being shipped for the neighbouring Province of Canterbury, besides providing those necessary for Otago railways); red, white, and black pine are next in demand, for building and furniture-work; and for wheelwrights, coach and cabinet makers, goli, rata, bokako, birch, manuka, maple, and other sorts, are coming more into repute as they are tested.

Licences are granted by the Government for cutting timber either by pit-saws or saw-mills, certain areas being prescribed and conditions attached. The southern railways afford great facilities for bringing the sawn timber to a shipping port; and on the west coast the numerous sounds or harbours, all having good access and shelter, as well as bold water along their coasts, enable vessels to make fast to the cliff on which the trees are growing, and to load with great ease. For driving power on the low-lying forests, steam-engines are most in use, as they can be bought and worked at a cheap rate. For hill forests, water power is abundant, so that, as regards quality of timber, supply, facilities for sawing, and convenience for shipping, every inducement is held out for extended enterprise; and

the great and increasing demand, together with the prices, render success certain to those embarking in the trade.

### MINERALS.

Gold, as yet, has been the most valuable mineral discovery. It is found in almost every district in the Province, from Murewhenu to Orepuki, and from Awarua to Wakawa, either alluvially or in quartz, giving good ground for the remark that it would pay to wash all the soil of the Province and to crush its granite rocks. The great value and extent of the gold fields can hardly be estimated. At the present time, their development depends, to a great extent, on individual exertion, so that very large gold fields are not yet available, awaiting the combination of capital and labour. The occupation of digging is an exciting one, causing many of its discomforts to be overlooked. Mining is less precarious in Otago than in most other places; still it is not the occupation best suited for new arrivals or the generality of immigrants.

Coal comes next in order of value. From the earliest days of the settlement, coal-seams have been more or less worked. The distribution of this great source of wealth is very general, and it is in beds of great breadth and thickness. Brown coal, or lignite, is at present most in demand, being more largely distributed and nearer the centres of consumption. The coals of Kaibangata and Kakanui are of superior quality, and as better means of conveyance are opened up, and the price consequently reduced, their merits will be more fully recognized. Bituminous shale has been discovered in different places, and inquiries are being made as to its value and extent.

Oamaru stone ranks as of first importance. Easily obtained and plentiful, workable with a carpenter's chisel and saw, capable of being cut and carved to any design, of a light, cheerful colour, and becoming harder the longer it is exposed to the atmosphere, it will soon make the district from which it is obtained a scene of constant and increasing labour. Its value and superior quality have already been recognized in the Colony of Victoria, and one of the best public buildings in Melbourne is now being erected of it. In Oamaru and Dunedin it is in very general use. In the Oamaru district, also, the material from which Portland cement is made has been discovered, and promises good results.

Lime is abundant, and kilns are at con-

stant work on the Peninsula, and at Waihola and Komoo.

Ironstone of a very superior quality has recently been discovered in the district of Riverton on the south-west, and at Catlin's Cove on the south-east, from which great results are expected to be obtained.

Antimony is already an article of export, and is steadily increasing in supply. Specimens of copper ore, plumbago, and cinabar have been obtained on the Carriek ranges, Dunstan district, analyses of which show them to be valuable. Different descriptions of useful clay are also abundant, and will amply repay the labour of practical hands.

Should Otago present no other inducement, her mineral resources alone would be a great attraction; but when combined with her other advantages, no country can offer greater promise of prosperity to the industrious, steady emigrant.

### LABOUR EMPLOYED AND REQUIRED.

The manufacturing interests of Otago are varied, extensive, and extending. As the cultivation of the soil was the first pursuit in which man was engaged, the preparation of its products for his support claims first notice.

There are at full work at the present time nearly thirty grain-mills, driven either by water or steam power, some of them able to produce fifteen tons of fine flour daily. For a considerable portion of the year, several of these mills are at work on the double-shift system, so that the quantity of flour sent to market is large. That the machinery employed is on the most approved principle, and that the management is in practical hands, is certain from the fact that the provincially-manufactured article has completely shut the market against foreign competition, and has, in addition, been largely and profitably exported to supply the wants of neighbouring Provinces and Colonies. Several of the mills have also appliances and machinery for oatmeal, and pot and pearl barley, all of which are produced largely.

Biscuit-makers have established for themselves a wide-spread reputation, so that both hand and steam power are in constant work to meet the demand which the quality of the article has created.

To provide the farmer with manure, and thus enable him to produce the largest quantity of grain, and of the best description, several bone-mills are in constant work, producing hundreds of tons annually.

But manuring the land with the most approved stimulants will not produce any

description of crop to the fullest extent without proper attention is paid to drainage. To meet this necessity, pipe and tile manufactories have been established both in towns and country districts; and this working of the clay is not confined to the ordinary requirements of the farm for drainage, but extends to brickmaking, which has assumed large proportions, requiring the services of a great number of hands in different capacities. Salt-glazed pipes, for railway and sewage purposes, have also their producers; whilst flower-pots, vases, and other useful and ornamental articles, are produced in endless variety.

The brewing of the Province is in high repute, and although at present of large dimensions, is not sufficient for the home trade and exportation. Dunedin is the principal centre of this business, six extensive establishments being in full work, and an additional one in course of erection. The estimate of the aggregate production is over 1,500 hogsheds per month.

Distilling has also an extensive representation, as in the one distillery existing, over 6,000 gallons of proof spirits are produced each month, in addition to a large quantity of malt supplied to brewers.

Coming now to man's second department of labour, viz. the pastoral, the shearing of the sheep having been performed—for which the shearer is this year paid 20s. a hundred head, with rations—scouring the wool and other processes employ a considerable amount of labour. Choice wool being selected, it passes into the newest industry of the Province—its manufacture into cloth and other material. This industry will rank amongst the foremost in importance. It is true, an attempt was made in early days, by a worthy weaver from Paisley, to produce webs by the hand loom, but that slow process not meeting with success, the Mosgiel Woollen Factory may fairly claim to be first in the field. This establishment occupies a fine healthy site on the Taieri Plain, and around it the cosy cottages of the workers, with their tidy garden-plots, are situated. Every appliance which modern invention has produced, to enable the factory to bring to market the best of its kind in every department, is at command; and as a result, its tweeds, blankets, knittings, and worsteds have been pronounced so excellent as to require a large addition to the buildings and machinery, to permit of the orders on hand from the Colonies, India, and Great Britain to be executed. The factory is now in the hands of a registered company, and with the extension of the trade an

additional supply of skilled labour will be required. A second factory of a similar kind will also shortly be at work.

The material, being finished at the mills, is brought into town, where several factories keep a large number employed in making it up into wearing apparel and other goods, as many as 400 to 500 hands being recently wanted by one factory alone.

Hat and cap manufacturing has two firms in the city giving it their sole attention, and producing every style, colour, or shape which the most fastidious could desire, and at prices which defy importation.

Leaving the wool, and coming to the skin and hide branch, several extensive tanneries are in full and constant work, employing a considerable amount of labour. From the steam-mill grinding the bark, through all the different processes necessary to produce leather of every description, the best methods of operation have been adopted, the wants of the local trade supplied, and a large quantity exported.

Men and boys are wanted to enable the different branches of the boot-factories to keep pace with the requirements of this rapidly-progressing indispensable trade. There is no use in sending away the leather to be made into boots and shoes, and in that shape sent back again, when boots and shoes can be made as well in the Province. The importance of this industry may be judged from the fact that one firm turns out over 120 pairs a day, and only wants labour to increase this number.

To save any waste of the raw material at the tannery, the manufacture of glue has been established, competent judges pronouncing in its favour, and the manifests of homeward-bound ships showing it as part of their cargoes.

Having disposed of the wool, skins, hides, and bones of the animals, the utilizing of the carcass forms an important question. It would require at least one hundred times the present population to consume the surplus stock in the Province. It must either be thrown away or turned to profitable use. The latter course has been adopted, and several meat-preserving establishments have been started to prepare the beef and mutton to help to feed the under-fed population of the old country. Tallow is also an important item. In both of these branches slaughtermen, butchers, tinsmiths, coopers, carpenters, and other trades are largely employed.

Nor should the first-rate quality of the soap and candles made be overlooked. Soap-making is a staple manufacture, several works being in active operation in prepar-





PORT CHAINERS.

## THE PROVINCE OF OTAGO.

ing this indispensable article of domestic comfort.

Material for agricultural and pastoral manufactures having been introduced by the settlers, what has been done in regard to native products? Besides preparing the native flax for export to the extent shown in Table 3, a very large amount has been manufactured into rope, ranging from 4 in. in diameter downwards. From some cause, the flax trade has not been flourishing lately; still there is no need to despond. Probably in a few years the native fibre will be exported in a manufactured state, not in flax and tow, as at present.

The timber trade in its different branches of manufacture is one of the greatest in the Province. Saw-mills exist, containing circular saws from the largest size to medium, cross-cut with radial bench, all the saws sharpened by patent machine; planing, tonguing, grooving, moulding, tenoning, mortising, shaping, boring, and turning machines, producing flooring, skirting, moulding, architraves, buckets, tubs, broom-handles; and every article necessary for house-building and furnishing, can be readily obtained. An idea may be formed of the extent of the trade when it is stated that one house, during the past twelve months, sold glazed windows of a money value of £4,600; and panel doors, £5,150.

From the largest and heaviest stage-coach or wagon to the handsome chariot, light buggy, express, or common cart, the coach-builders of Dunedin are prepared to execute any orders entrusted to them.

Furniture and cabinet makers are also developing their trades to an extent that surprises every one. Some of the largest and most commodious warehouses in the city are connected with this trade.

Workers in all sorts of metals are busy plying their trade from day to day. Taking the iron department as first in importance, some firms give their attention principally to riveting, and from their shops the incessant clatter of the hammer indicates great activity. Iron vessels, boilers, vats, tubes, girders, and works of a similar character, indicate the prosperity of the establishments.

Equal in importance with the previous branch are the machine shops, where will be constantly found in course of construction land, marine, and hydraulic engines; quartz-crushing, flax-dressing, and lithograph printing machines; wool, tin, and calendering presses; plate and tin rollers; and preparations are being made to build locomotives. To show what this trade can

do, a crane to lift 40 tons weight has been satisfactorily made in Dunedin.

Other houses make standards for wire fencing, castings of various designs and patterns, galvanized piping, spouting, ridging, and a specially patented iron fluming.

Tin, copper, brass, lead, and zinc manufactures give employment to a great number, especially to the boys of the community; and the ease and exactness with which every item can be wrought, twisted, moulded, cast, or hammered, either by machine or hand, has made these trades special features of industry.

The limits of this Handbook prevent particular notice being given to every trade, so that what is to follow must be condensed.

Mills for grinding coffee, spices, rice, and such-like commodities are in steady operation, and a large portion of these necessary articles of consumption in the Colony are ground and prepared in Dunedin.

Several factories to supply liquors, aerated waters, &c., also afford employment; and at the Vienna Exhibition, a certificate of merit was awarded to an exhibitor from Otago. Wines made from the different fruits grown, are daily gaining favour, and the latest enterprise in this direction is cider, equal to that of Devonshire.

Monumental and ornamental work in stone is a prominent trade, and one house makes varnish and polish to meet any demand. Paper bags, ink, and blacking have their producers.

The Peninsula can boast of a cheese-factory on the American principle, which has been in operation for some time, and is annually improving the quality and increasing the quantity of its products.

Cod-liver oil cannot be overlooked as an industrial pursuit. The Port-Chalmers-made oil, from its purity, cleanness, and other qualities, has drawn forth the approbation of the medical faculty, and the producer is fully occupied in supplying the orders that are sent to him from other places.

To conclude this chapter without reference to the building of wooden vessels would be an omission. Although the trade is not in a very lively condition, yet it gives signs of improvement. A more grave fault would be the omission of agricultural implement works, in which Otago excels. There is now no necessity to import horse gear, hay-rakes, harrows, hoes, yokes, cultivators, grubbers, subsoil, single, double, or treble furrow ploughs, reaping, mowing, or thrashing machines, or any other farm

requisite, as these are all made in Otago, with the particular recommendation that they are made by men who know the country and the kind of implement required. Cart, coach, and saddle harness, in all the different styles of manufacture, can be obtained from Dunedin and up-country makers.

There is a large demand for all kinds of labour; of course, in some trades much greater than others. For instance, the supply of female domestics for town and country is quite inadequate to the demand. Farm servants and labourers are also in great demand in all the agricultural districts. Good wages, carefulness, and cheap land soon enable the farm servant to start farming on his own account. For railway construction, saw-mill purposes, road-making, and generally for unskilled labour, the demand is large, and many useful works are at a standstill for want of men suited for such work. Brickmakers and layers, masons, carpenters, turners, blacksmiths, engineers, boiler-makers, wheelwrights, printers, workers in brass, copper, and lead, could, to a considerable number, find employment, the demand for labour not being confined to one locality, but extending over the whole Province.

#### *Rates of Wages.*

- Bakers, per day, 10s. to 11s.
- Blacksmiths, per day, 11s. to 14s.
- Boiler-makers and riveters, 10s. to 12s.
- Bricklayers, per day, 12s. to 15s.
- Brassfounders, per day, 10s. to 12s.
- Carpenters and joiners, per day, 12s. to 15s.
- Coach-builders and painters, per day, 12s. to 15s.
- Coopers, per day, 9s. to 10s.
- Dairymaids, per annum, £40 to £50, and found.
- Domestic servants, per annum, £30 to £40, and found.
- Engineers and drivers, per day, 12s. to 15s.
- Farm servants, per annum, £52 to £55, and found.
- Gardeners, per day, 10s.
- Labourers, per day, 8s. to 10s.
- Masons, per day, 12s. to 14s.
- Mechanics, per day, 12s. to 14s.
- Painters and paperhangers, per day, 11s. to 12s.
- Ploughmen, per annum, £55 to £60, and found.
- Plumbers, per day, 11s. to 13s.
- Plasterers, per day, 11s. to 13s.
- Saddlers and harness-makers, per day, 0s. to 12s.

Shepherds, per annum, £55 to £60, and found.

Quarymen, per day, 11s. to 13s.

Tanners and curriers, per day, 11s. to 15s.

Upholsterers and cabinet-makers, per day, 12s. to 14s.

Tailors, per day, 8s. to 10s.

Watchmakers, per day, 12s.

Wheel and cart wrights, per day, 10s. to 12s.

#### *Usual Rations allowed to Labourers.*

The meals of hired servants, male or female, are not doled out in miserable pittance, and of the cheapest articles the market can supply; on the contrary, servants fare well, if not sumptuously, every day. The common home practice of having weekly allowances of tea, sugar, &c., made up at the grocers, of inferior quality to that supplied for the family, is quite unknown and would not be submitted to.

#### *PROVINCIAL PUBLIC WORKS.*

The simple statement that the Provincial Government has expended, almost every year since its establishment, an increasing amount on public works, would of itself indicate the foresight shown in the past, and be a guarantee for the future. Possessing, from its own resources, a large revenue without any taxation, and having a resolute, enterprising community, the public works of the Province must be carried on with increasing alacrity. The lament is, "the labourers are so few while the works are so many." For the current year, about £200,000 have been appropriated for expenditure on forming and maintaining roads, bridges, railways, and tramways, carrying on harbour works, such as breakwaters, jetties, dredging and reclamation, and erecting buildings for public purposes. Nor is the outlay of public money for similar purposes at all likely to be lessened, as every mile of railway constructed, road made, bridge built, or jetty erected, either opens up new country, gives greater inducement for settlement, or removes difficulties and expense in the transport of produce; and, as a consequence, will require the progressive movement to be carried on for many years, until every part of the Province is easily and rapidly accessible. At present, great activity is shown: no less than eight different lines of rail leading from seaports to agricultural and other districts are under construction.

#### *Building Societies.*

As previously noticed, building societies



form a leading feature in the history of the Province, commencing with the first year of its existence, and progressing until now, when the number amounts to sixteen, all in active prosperity. Some of them are conducted on the terminable principle, others on the permanent, and some of them combine both. The entrance fee varies from 1s. per share to 2s. 6d., and the shares range from £10 to £100 each, the fortnightly or monthly subscription varying according to the value of the share. The prosperity and importance of these societies may be judged from the facts that dividends or bonuses equal to eight per cent. per annum have been declared, and that the amount of business transacted ranges from £5,000 per annum to £30,000. To working men, these societies have proved of immense advantage, enabling them to secure a freehold or erect a building on easy terms; and a fact highly favourable in their history is, that hitherto all of them have been conducted soundly and satisfactorily—there have been no failures and no swindling. The number of the operative class who possess freeholds and free houses would not have been so great had such societies not existed, and it is gratifying to find that the interest taken in such institutions by the upper and wealthier classes is extending. A meeting was recently held in Dunedin, to form an association for the purpose of purchasing land and building self-contained cottages, of stone or brick, and each having four or five rooms, and selling them to the occupiers on the deferred-payment principle, so that the rent paid weekly will go towards purchasing the freehold. In addition to high wages and cheap provisions, the prospect of thus obtaining a freehold home of his own is offered to the provident tradesman and his frugal wife, which it will be their own fault if they do not speedily realize.

#### RELIGIOUS BODIES.

From the number of sects which exist, it will be seen that the greatest toleration prevails. According to the last census, and from this source all the figures in this chapter are derived, there are about one hundred different forms of belief professed in the Province. Strictly speaking, no one of these bodies has State aid or endowment; for although the Presbyterians have land reserves which yield a considerable revenue, those reserves were not made by the Government, but were a distinctive feature of the Otago scheme, when a class settlement was intended. The reserves are vested in trustees, and the rents are spent in building churches and manse, on

scholarships, and in payment of the salary of £600 a year to the Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy in the University. None of the money goes for ministers' stipends.

The Presbyterian Church, being the first planted in the Province, has the largest number of adherents, ministers, and churches. It is not connected with any particular branch of the same persuasion in Britain, but is composed of members from the United Presbyterian, Free, Established, and other Kirks in Scotland, as well as English and Irish Presbyterians. Its work is carried on through a synod, consisting of four presbyteries, containing thirty-nine full charges and fifty-five stations. In all the charges and in thirty-seven of the stations, service is held every Sunday, and in the remaining eighteen, once a fortnight. Additional ministers are constantly arriving. The means of support is a sustentation fund, to which each of the congregations contributes, and which yields an average of £200 a year to each minister, which is in general supplemented by the congregation. Each minister has also a manse, and in country districts, a glebe attached. The total sum collected by this body for last year was £14,560. The number of adherents is 32,180.

Episcopalians rank next in point of numbers, being set down at 16,800. About four years ago, the Province was erected into a diocese, and ecclesiastical affairs are administered by a bishop, with at present one archdeacon and fifteen other clergy licensed to charges. These, together with lay representatives chosen by the several parishes and parochial districts, form the synod of the diocese. All the fully-constituted parishes have parsonage-houses, and the clergy in the country districts have under their care such subordinate places as may be reached from their respective centres. There are also fourteen lay readers in places which cannot as yet receive the regular ministrations of a clergyman. Candidates for preparation for holy orders are now received, and in certain cases students in theology are permitted to present themselves for examination by the Principal of the College, without residence.

In regard to numbers, Roman Catholics take the third place, showing a total of 7,405. This church is presided over by a bishop, with ten clergymen, having twenty-one churches and chapels, in which the usual forms of worship are regularly and strictly attended to. There are also eight schools, and one convent in which religious education is given.

The adherents of the Wesleyan Method

ists are 3,075; Baptists, 1,303; Congregational Independents, 1,051; Lutherans, 484. Each of these bodies has handsome and substantial buildings, in which service is regularly held. The majority of them have Sunday schools, Bible classes, and Young Men's Associations attached to them, the whole of which are carried on with great earnestness and zeal.

The number of Hebrews in the Province is 293. They have a synagogue in Dunedin. The other sects are numerically small.

#### PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATION.

The settlers of Otago have from the outset manifested great interest in the advancement of education. The following is a classification of the educational institutions which are maintained wholly or in part from the Provincial revenue or from public endowments:—1. District Common Schools in almost every locality where twenty educable children or upwards can be collected together. 2. District Grammar Schools in the chief centres of population. 3. A Boys' and a Girls' High School in Dunedin. 4. A University in Dunedin. 5. A School of Art in Dunedin. 6. Atheneums, Mechanics' Institutes, and public libraries in nearly all the villages, towns, and inhabited rural districts. To these may be added, 7. An Industrial School near Dunedin, for the maintenance and training of boys and girls whose parents are criminal or dissolute. 8. A school in connection with the Otago Benevolent Institution, for the board and education of orphans and other destitute children. 9. Two Free Day Schools in Dunedin, for neglected poor children.

With the exception of the University, the whole of these institutions are to a greater or less extent under the control of the Otago Education Board, which is composed of His Honour the Superintendent, the members of the Provincial Executive, and the Speaker of the Provincial Council. The following is a summary of the duties committed to the Board by the Education Ordinance:—To exercise a general superintendence over all the public schools; to define the limits of the educational districts; to promote the establishment of schools wherever needed; to direct the expenditure and due application of all moneys appropriated by the Provincial Council for the purposes of education; to manage the education reserves; to fix the qualifications of teachers; and, through its inspectors, to inquire into and to report, from time to time, upon the state of education and the condition of the several schools within the

Province. The composition of the Board was in former years the subject of much consideration and discussion, and it was at length constituted, as at present, on the principle that as the expenditure on education is mainly defrayed from the Provincial revenue, it is indispensable that so large an amount of public money should be placed at the disposal only of a Board whose members are directly and entirely responsible to the Provincial Council.

Subject to the general supervision of the Education Board, the schools are placed under the immediate control of School Committees elected annually by the owners and occupiers of land and householders in the respective educational districts. Each Committee must consist of not less than five nor more than nine members, a majority of whom must be parents of families.

There are four classes of District Schools—Grammar Schools, Main Schools, Side Schools, and Temporarily-subsidized Schools. The Grammar Schools, of which there are already five, are situated in the chief centres of population. As a rule, the Grammar School comprises three different departments—an infant and needlework department, under a matron and assistants; an intermediate school, under the second master and assistants; and an upper school, under the head-master, who, in addition to exercising a general control over the whole establishment, is charged with the duty of giving instruction in the higher branches of education to the more advanced pupils. The Main Schools are established in the more populous districts, where, as a rule, an average attendance of upwards of forty pupils can be secured. When the attendance is sufficiently numerous in any Main School, a school-mistress, or a teacher of sewing, and one or more pupil-teachers, are employed in addition to the head-master. The Side Schools and the Temporarily-subsidized Schools are for the most part placed in more recently-settled localities, where the children are young and few in number. The qualifications of the masters of the Grammar and Main Schools are fixed very high, and they may be described as corresponding to the qualifications usually required of Scottish burgh and parish school-masters respectively. No election by a School Committee is valid until the teacher elected has produced a certificate of qualification from Her Majesty's Committee of Privy Council on Education, a recognized Education Board in any British Colony, or the Board's Inspector of Schools, and such other evidence of fitness and good character



as may be required by the Board. No one can attain the full position of a Grammar or Main school teacher who cannot furnish satisfactory evidence of good character, respectable scholarship, and experience and success in school teaching. Many of the present teachers have attended Government training schools in Britain or in the colonies, and a number of them have been students of a University. A less stringent rule is followed with regard to the admission of Side and Temporarily-subsidized School teachers, when trained or experienced masters cannot be obtained. Good character, youth, and a fair amount of scholarship, together with the probability of proving an efficient instructor of youth, are in such a case sufficient to secure a temporary appointment on trial. It is in the power of any person so appointed to obtain a full certificate of competency, after satisfactorily undergoing probation for a sufficient period. Many of the Side School teachers, however, possess superior qualifications, and only hold their present appointments in the hope of securing higher positions as they fall vacant.

With a view to avoid the inconvenience which might ensue if a teacher's engagement could not be determined by the School Committee, "without fixing upon him the stigma of crime or moral delinquency," it has been provided that all engagements under the Education Ordinance shall be deemed yearly engagements, which may be determined, after the expiry of the first year, by three months' notice on either side; but, as a means of protection from improper and undue local influences, no School Committee has power to determine a teacher's engagement without the sanction of the Board previously obtained. A competent, prudent, and faithful teacher's tenure of office may, therefore, be regarded as quite fixed and secure.

The Board, out of funds voted by the Provincial Council, pays salaries at the following rates:—To head-masters of Grammar Schools, £200; Main School teachers, £100; Side School teachers and school-mistresses, £75; Temporarily-subsidized School teachers, £60; sewing teachers, £25; and these salaries are augmented by the School Committees from the school fees, subscriptions, or other moneys raised locally. The Board also erects the school-houses and the teachers' residences, and supplies maps and other school appliances. It pays two-thirds of the cost of keeping the school buildings in repair, the whole of the salaries of pupil-teachers, and the school fees of orphan and destitute children. The remainder of the expenses are defrayed

from the school fees or moneys raised locally. The school fees generally may be regarded as moderate, when the rates of wages and other remuneration are taken into account. It was attempted, from 1862 to 1864, to provide for a large proportion of the school expenditure by means of local rates on houses and lands; but owing mainly, it is believed, to the great difficulty experienced in equitably and economically assessing property in so young a Colony, the rates were abolished in 1864, by almost general consent.

In the course of the last fifteen years numerous portions of land of various areas have been set apart as an educational endowment. The annual proceeds of this endowment are as yet comparatively small; but in course of time these reserves will produce a revenue which will go far to maintain the public schools of Otago without aid from the ordinary annual revenue of the Province or Colony. These ordinary educational reserves are in addition to the magnificent reserve of 200,000 acres granted by the Crown for the endowment of the University of Otago.

The Synod of Otago has the control of a valuable educational endowment, and it has resolved to endow chairs in the University of Otago as the educational fund at its disposal may from time to time permit. Already the Synod has endowed a Professorship of Moral and Mental Philosophy in the University, to the extent of £600 per annum.

A High School for Boys has been maintained in Dunedin since 1863. This institution was established with a view to impart instruction in "all the branches of a liberal education—the French and other modern languages, the Latin and Greek classics, mathematics, and such other branches of science as the advancement of the Colony and the increase of the population may from time to time require." The school fees are £8 per annum.

A Girls' High School was established in Dunedin three years ago, and it has been numerously attended. The ordinary course of instruction in this school embraces a thorough English education, namely, reading, grammar, composition, elocution, history, natural science, geography, writing, arithmetic, class-singing, drawing, French, and industrial work. Music (piano), singing (private lessons), gymnastics, dancing, German, and other branches, are taught by visiting teachers as extra subjects. The school fee for the ordinary course is £8 per annum for the junior, and £10 for the senior classes. There is a boarding establishment in connection with each of the



High Schools, for the accommodation of pupils from a distance.

The University in Dunedin may fitly be said to form the keystone of the public educational system of Otago. A very handsome, commodious, and centrally-situated stone building, which is reported to have cost over £30,000, has been set apart as a University. As already mentioned, 200,000 acres of land have been granted as an endowment for this institution. The present rental of this valuable estate is considerable, but it may be regarded as trifling in comparison with what may be reasonably expected when the existing leases fall in. The following chairs have already been instituted and filled by distinguished graduates of British Universities; viz.—Classics (including Latin, Greek, and the English language and literature), mathematics and natural philosophy, chemistry (theoretical and practical), and mental and moral philosophy. A fifth chair (anatomy and physiology) has been recently resolved upon, and steps have been taken to secure the services of a competent professor from the Home country. Arrangements have also been made for the delivery of lectures on law, mineralogy, and other subjects during the university session. The average attendance of students during the three sessions already past has been about eighty.

A valuable and carefully-selected library for the University is in the course of formation. It is intended that this library shall also, to a large extent, serve the purposes of a free public library. A suite of rooms in the University building is occupied as a Provincial Museum, under the curatorship of Captain Hutton, who is already widely known as an able and enthusiastic naturalist. The contents of the Museum are, even now, comparatively numerous and valuable, and it is expected that a separate and suitable building for a Museum will be erected before long.

A School of Art has been maintained in Dunedin for the last four years, under a very skilful and enthusiastic master, who, in addition to teaching the classes in the institution, gives regular instruction to nearly a thousand of the elder pupils of the public schools in the city and suburbs. The school was attended in 1873 by twenty-seven teachers and pupil-teachers, by thirty-five ladies at the afternoon class, and by eighty artisans and youths in the evenings. Instruction is given in freehand drawing; outline from copies and from the round; shading and painting from copies and from the round; painting from nature, in water-colours and oil; drawing and painting the

human figure; designing, practical geometry, perspective, mechanical and architectural drawing, &c. The drawings and paintings already executed by a number of the students in the several classes evince great talent and industry. The drawing-master reports that the good conduct and diligence of the students while in school are "beyond all praise." The school is already in possession of an extensive and valuable collection of casts, models, copies, &c., and additions are made to it from time to time. The School of Art is at present accommodated in the University building, but it is expected that a suitable building will soon be erected for this valuable and useful institution.

Athenæums, Mechanics' Institutes, and public libraries,\* to the number of about eighty, are in successful operation throughout the Province. These institutions are very liberally aided by the Provincial Government, both as regards the erection of buildings and the procuring of books. "In nearly every town of the Province there is now a reading-room in connection with the public circulating library. They are supplied, in greater or less abundance, with newspapers and the standard English periodicals, and are daily resorted to by the members. Some of them are open during

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\* "I went round the town [Lawrence], and visited the Athenæum, or reading-room. In all these towns there are libraries, and the books are strongly bound and well thumbed. Carlyle, Macaulay, and Dickens are certainly better known to small communities in New Zealand than they are to similar congregations of men and women at home. The schools, hospitals, reading-rooms, and University were all there, and all in useful operation; so that life in the Province [of Otago] may be said to be a happy life, and one in which men and women may and do have food to eat and clothes to wear, books to read, and education to enable them to read the books."—Anthony Trollope's "Australia and New Zealand," vol. II., pp. 336 and 347. London edition.

"The progress achieved in all the other elements of material prosperity is equally remarkable; while the Provincial Council has made noble provision for primary, secondary, and industrial schools; for hospitals and benevolent asylums, for Athenæums and Schools of Art, and for the new University, which is to be opened at Dunedin next year."—From a despatch respecting Otago, by Governor Sir George Bowen, in 1871; quoted by Trollope, who follows up the extract by the statement, "I found this to be all true."

the entire day and evening, some only in the evening." It is stated in the Education Report for 1872, upon good authority, "that the public library books were not only to be seen in the more comfortable and accessible dwellings in the settled districts, but that it was no uncommon thing to find recently-published English books of a high class, bearing the Board's stamp upon them, in the shepherd's solitary abode among the hills, and in the digger's hut in gullies accessible only by mountain bridle-tracks."

The Dunedin Athenæum and Mechanics' Institute possesses a handsome and commodious building, a valuable library, and a very large roll of members. The Otago Institute for the promotion of Art, Science, Literature, and Philosophy, has been established for about four years, and has a large number of members, and a library of books relating principally to natural history and science.

The public schools and other educational institutions of Otago are wholly unsectarian. It is provided by the Education Ordinance that in every public school, "the holy Scriptures shall be read daily;" that "such reading shall be either at the opening or close of the school, as may be fixed by the teacher;" and that "no child whose parent or guardian shall object, shall be bound to attend at such times." The teachers under the Board have been enjoined to avoid the use of reading books or text books, and the employment in the course of ordinary school instruction of any words or expressions, calculated to give just ground of offence to the members of any religious denomination. The Board has also enjoined that "no religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination or sect, shall be taught during the school hours in any school connected with the Board." The public schools are consequently attended by the children of parents belonging to all denominations and sects.

In Dunedin and a few of the larger towns, schools have been established in connection with the Roman Catholic Church. In year 1872:—

1. Derived from votes of the Council (for Provincial current expenditure) .....	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
2. Derived from votes of the Provincial Council (for school buildings) .....	9,008	4	5			
	4,638	0	9	13,706	5	2
3. Rents of Education Reserves.....				10,931	9	3
4. School fees and local contributions .....				12,754	9	5
Total .....				£37,392	3	10
5. Add University expenditure during the same period.....				3,503	3	2
Total expenditure .....				£40,895	7	0

This is at the rate of upwards of 10s. per head of the gross population of the Province, and is exclusive of the money expended for education at the private and the denominational schools.

addition to a numerously-attended Roman Catholic elementary school, there is in Dunedin a day and boarding school for the higher education of girls, under the charge of an accomplished lady superioress and other highly-qualified teachers. The first day school in the Province in connection with the Episcopal Church has quite recently been opened in Dunedin. There are no week-day schools maintained in connection with any other religious body, but almost every congregation of the different denominations has a Sunday-school or schools.

In Dunedin and some of the more populous localities, there are also private elementary and upper schools, conducted with more or less success, and attended in the aggregate by a considerable number of pupils.

There is now a comparatively large number of Provincial and other exhibitions to the Grammar Schools, the Boys' and the Girls' High Schools, and the University. These exhibitions are of the annual value of about £30, and are open for competition to pupils of the public schools, and the other youth of the Province, of both sexes.

The total number of pupils who attended the Public Elementary and Grammar Schools of Otago in the course of the year 1872, was 9,828. The number of schools was 127, in which 190 teachers of all kinds were employed. The number of scholars in these schools learning the higher rules of arithmetic, during 1872, was 867; algebra or geometry, 211; English grammar, 3,921; geography, 4,125; British history, 2,284; Latin, 337; Greek, 10; French, 242; drawing or mapping, 1,425; book-keeping, 267; singing from notes, 2,223; sewing (girls), 2,110. The attendance at the Boys' High School reached 137 during the same year; and 125 were enrolled as pupils of the Girls' High School. The number of students who attended the University in 1872 was 70.

The following is a summary of the expenditure on public school education for the year 1872:—



The amount voted by the Provincial Council at its last session was £18,000 for the erection and enlargement of school buildings during the year 1873-74. The sum voted for the current expenses of the schools during the same period was £25,676. This is inclusive of the reserved rents.

The newspaper must be recognized as a most important educational power. The following is a summary of the newspapers at present published in the Province:—Two morning and one evening daily, one tri-weekly, three bi-weekly, twelve weekly, and six monthly newspapers or periodicals. They are for the most part conducted with ability and spirit, and are well supported by the public.

There can be no doubt that the numerous and excellent educational facilities now existing and in contemplation, together with the great salubrity and the bracing and invigorating qualities of the climate of New Zealand, affecting most beneficially, as they cannot fail to do, the mental vigour of both teachers and scholars, will render possible to the youth of Otago a degree of intellectual strength and development scarcely attainable, and certainly not to be surpassed, by the youth of any of the other colonies of Britain.

#### HOSPITALS AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

In Dunedin, a substantially-built, commodious, and well-ventilated central hospital is maintained at the sole cost of the Government, to which patients are admitted free, and have immediate attention from the resident surgeon and stated visits from the Provincial surgeon. The cost of this hospital for the last year was £4,946. In addition to the inmates in this and all the other hospitals, out-door patients have advice given and medicine dispensed free of cost. If patients are able and willing to pay, they are charged reasonable rates. The reason why the Dunedin hospital is supported solely at public cost is, that patients whose diseases are chronic or of long standing are removed from the other hospitals into it. At Invercargill, Oamaru, Lawrence, Queenstown, Dunstan, Switzer's, and Naseby, hospitals are also established, supported by public contributions and grants in aid to an equal amount from the Government.

A Benevolent Institution, under the management of a committee of citizens, has been established at Oaversham. It is a fine brick and stone building, and is intended for young children who may be orphans or deserted, and for infirm persons. The

Government contributed largely to the cost of the building, and subsidize subscriptions and collections at the same rate as for hospitals. The amount contributed by the people last year for this patriotic institution was £5,955, and the Government gave an equal sum.

The Lunatic Asylum for the Province has been erected adjacent to Dunedin, and is sustained at an annual cost of about £4,500. Inmates possessed of means, or having friends willing to contribute, can be lodged in separate apartments from the main building. Everything which experience has shown to be for the benefit of this unfortunate class has been provided. Gardens, bowling-greens, cricket, concerts and balls, together with whatever may conduce to relieve this saddest of all misfortunes, is carefully and regularly supplied.

An Industrial and Reformatory School has also been established, to which the Magistrates have power to commit neglected and criminal children for a given number of years, to whom trades or occupations are taught. The children are brought up in the religion of their parents, so far as that can be ascertained, and to their welfare, after being discharged, attention is paid. The cost of maintenance for the past year was £1,439. Parents are compelled, when able or found, to pay for the maintenance of their children at this school. The practical result of the institution is that crime is nipped in the bud, the police having instructions to bring all neglected children before the Magistrates.

Invercargill has also had a Ragged School in operation for some years, which is subsidized by the Government at the same rate as hospitals.

Within the last few months, a Female Refuge or Home has been set on foot in Dunedin, the management of which is confided to a committee of philanthropic ladies, and to which the public revenue has contributed £350.

During the past year, the Provincial Government has also paid for the service of chaplains for the various institutions in town, £300; to medical officer for vaccination, £130; for relief to destitute persons, £121; and for burying the indigent, £120; showing a total amount contributed from public funds and private charities for the year ended 30th June, 1873, of £26,000.

#### FRIENDLY AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS.

Institutions of a more private and less pretentious character, but at the same time not less valuable or worthy of notice, are numerous. Friendly Societies, instituted to



help members in time of need, are plentiful, largely supported, and in a flourishing condition. The great majority of the inhabitants of every class belong to either Oddfellows, Foresters, Masonic, Templar, or Temperance Lodges, and receive the advantages, if they so choose, accruing from those useful and well-managed bodies. The Caledonian Society also comes under the same class, spending a good portion of its funds in relieving cases of distress, inciting to emulation, and providing evening classes for the benefit of apprentices and lads engaged during the day and anxious to improve their education. The latest bodies of the kind that have been started are called "County Associations," in which settlers who come from the two most northerly counties in Scotland, Caithness and Sutherland, have taken the initiative. These associations have as their leading features, assisting poorer county-folks to come to this land of promise, and giving them assistance and advice on arrival. Though last mentioned, the Fire Brigade is of high importance, the members generously, without compensation, denying themselves many comforts and undertaking dangerous risks, in the beneficent work of saving life and property at fires.

#### COTTAGES AND OTHER HOUSES.

The demand for dwelling-houses in the towns and country districts exceeds the supply, consequently rents are high, this being one of the few disadvantages immigrants have to contend with in the Province. In Dunedin, a small cottage of only two apartments cannot be had under 7s. a week, and four-roomed houses rate from 12s. to 14s. a week, and it is difficult to find any even at these rents. Although buildings are being put up as fast as men can be obtained to erect them, the supply does not overtake the demand. To country towns and districts the same remarks apply as to scarcity, but the rents are somewhat lower.

What the working classes are doing, and what new arrivals will find to be to their advantage to attend to as soon as possible, is, to secure each a section on which to build houses of their own. According to the locality, the prices of sections vary. In Government townships the upset price is from £3 per quarter acre; in private townships it is much higher. In the suburbs of Dunedin, prices range from £50 a quarter acre, and the terms of payment are one-third cash, and the balance spread over two or three years, at eight per cent. interest. The building societies, and in some cases the sellers of the land, are willing to advance

money to enable the purchaser to buy the material necessary to build the house, charging reasonable interest, and taking payment by instalments.

The cost of a cottage of four rooms, with provision for extension at a future time, may be fairly set down at about £150, including everything.

Taking a moderate example: Suppose a labourer to earn, with broken time, £2 a week, equal to £104 a year. His family, averaging five members, can live very well on 3s. a day, making per week £1. 1s.; firewood and clothing, 5s.; rent or interest, &c., 8s.; total per week, £1. 14s.; leaving 6s. a week, or, say, £15 a year to the good. In thirteen years the whole cost of his property would be cleared off. This case does not take into account the reduction of interest as the debt is being paid off, nor any earnings the younger members of the family may make. These are a set-off against school fees and any family additions, or other contingencies. There are few steady labourers but can earn more than the above estimate, and live at considerably less expense, while mechanics and skilled workers will double the amount.

#### ADVANTAGES OFFERED TO LABOURERS AND OTHERS.

It is to most people a severe trial to sever the link that binds them to Home. To leave the land of their birth, the land of their sires, with all its associations and relationships, and try their chance in a foreign land, especially if that land be an unknown one and inhabited by a strange race, requires a daring and determined spirit. The attractions which Otago presents to the intending emigrant remove, to a large extent, these formidable objections. The appearance of the country, its climate, its people, and its institutions, will make the immigrant feel at once at home. It offers to the workman tenfold better chances of bettering his condition than the overcrowded countries of Europe afford. It will be his own fault if he does not succeed and prosper. He is surrounded with all the advantages and with none of the disadvantages to which he has been accustomed. He has a large variety of occupations from which to select, as men do not stick very strictly to their own trades; he has a fine, healthy, bracing climate in which to work; if his occupation be outdoor, the number of days in the year on which he can work is more than in Britain; his hours of labour are shorter, being eight, and if he work overtime it is at increased wages; his daily

pay is at least one-half more than at Home, whilst the price of provisions is considerably cheaper, clothing almost as cheap, and far less fuel for firing is required. He can in a short time, by the exercise of ordinary economy, save as much as will enable him to buy a section of land and build a house of his own, with a garden attached, in which he can employ himself in his leisure hours. Ample provision is made for the education of his children, so that, if so inclined, he can enter them at the infant school and carry them through a college or university training. Let his religious belief be what it may, he has liberty to follow it, and in most cases he will find professors of the same faith with whom he can associate. Libraries and reading-rooms are numerous, and can be joined at a cheap rate. He has abundant means of recreation and amusement to which he can resort. Savings-banks, and building and friendly societies, in which he can place his savings, are on a sure footing and in a prosperous condition, and the credit of the Colony is the security for his life assurance. He has as orderly and law-obeying a community as anywhere exists from which to choose his circle of friends. There is scarcely a parish or town in Scotland, England, or Ireland from which an immigrant can arrive, without finding an old acquaintance or friend to bid a hearty welcome, and perhaps renew former intimacy—old settlers who came from the same "country" are forming associations to facilitate this object. Good metalled roads open up the country in all directions, and for ten shillings he will get a seat in a four-horse coach to carry him a fifty-miles' journey and back again; and in a year or two railways will convey him to the extreme ends, north or south, and for a considerable distance into the interior of the Province. If he is a farmer, there is abundance of first-class land from which to make his selection, and he can choose the conditions on which to pay for it. Every implement he may require can be obtained cheaply, of the newest pattern, of the best workmanship, and on the shortest notice. For drainage and artificial manures he will be at little cost. The weather for seed-time and harvest is highly favourable, and a ready and profitable market awaits his crops, for which he is paid at once in cash. He has no obnoxious game, hypothec, or entail laws to hinder his prosperity, and the foot of the tax-gatherer rarely treads his threshold.

#### HINTS TO EMIGRANTS.

In providing an outfit, emigrants should not encumber themselves with a large stock

of clothing or furniture. They will find, on arrival, that everything required can be procured at very little more money than at home, and dress can be adapted to the fashions of the place. All that is necessary is simply enough to keep them comfortable during the voyage. A few pounds in cash in the pocket will be of more advantage than large boxes filled with bed and body clothes; the expense of storing or moving about from place to place is serious. They should bring any surplus money by bank-draft or post-office order, and not in gold or notes, as these may be lost, whilst the money order is safe. On arrival, if they have friends who expect them, no time should be lost in joining them, as staying about the town is very unprofitable. The immigration agent will furnish, on this as well as other subjects, every information as to the cheapest and best route to be taken. Coaches and steamers start daily for all parts of the Province, and fares are very reasonable. If the immigrant is looking out for work, he should not be too particular in accepting an offer, although it is not just what he wants: far better to set to work at once, than to idle about and get a doubtful name; nor should he be exorbitant in demanding extreme wages, for however good a tradesman he may be, a man with colonial experience is more valued and sought for than a "new chum," though a short time will put the "new chum" on his proper level. Different trades or branches of trade are not yet nicely or narrowly defined in the Province, so that a gardener is generally expected to be able and willing to groom a horse and drive him; young men and lads for country work will be required to milk cows, as that part of dairy husbandry is usually performed by males; and artisans at times may find it to their advantage to be able to handle a pick and shovel, perhaps on a new gold-field, or to work on the harvest field behind the reaper or mower, when the precious fruits of the earth are in danger of being lost from want of labour to gather and garner them. In a new country, a man should not only be ready to turn his hand to anything, but also to keep his eyes on everything going on around him. He does not know what may be his position in a few years, or what great improvements on old notions his observation may enable him to effect.

Immigrants should land with a firm determination to prosper; and by steady perseverance, sobriety, and strict attention to a few simple points, success is certain.

They should carefully avoid taking up too soon with easily-formed associates:



although such may turn out, in the long run, good friends, there is the danger of their being the reverse. Avoid frequenting hotels as far as possible: in themselves they are necessary institutions, but they are not intended for working men, especially strangers, whose own homes are in the neighbourhood of their work. Avoid getting into debt for domestic articles. Buy provisions, clothing, fuel, and furniture for cash. This can easily be done by arranging for wages being paid weekly or fortnightly, and if the amount is not sufficient to obtain some small article considered necessary, better wait a week than have it on credit. Shake off the bad, ruinous habits of pass-books, so common at home, and in a new country strike out a good and prosperous course. By so doing, better goods will be obtained at cheaper rates, their custom will be sought after by the best shopkeepers, and easy minds will be the result. "Out

of debt, out of danger." Exceptions to this rule are—Obtaining land on deferred payments, and borrowing money from building societies to erect a dwelling-house. In these cases, the debtor is to a certain extent his own creditor, and participates in the profits which he assists to make. Practise a rigid economy for a year or two. Frugality of habits, and denial of some of those luxuries and pleasures which older settlers indulge in, will be of great advantage. Take great care to save the first hundred sovereigns. It is far more difficult to save the first than the second or any subsequent hundred, as the profits of the first go a long way to make its successors.

With attention to this advice, and with the ordinary prudence and common sense for which Britons are celebrated, the immigrants will bless the day they landed in Otago and made it their home.

## PROVINCE OF CANTERBURY.

### FOUNDATION AND DESIGN.

THE foundation of the Province of Canterbury dates from 1848, in which year a number of men of influence in England, including the Archbishop of Canterbury, Lord Lyttelton, and the present Duke of Manchester, formed themselves into what was called the "Canterbury Association for Founding a Settlement in New Zealand," which was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1849. The portion of the Colony in which the Association was to establish its members was for some time not fixed, as it was doubtful whether the plain adjacent to Banks Peninsula, or a tract of land near Wairarapa and Manawatu, in the present Province of Wellington, was the better adapted for their requirements. Captain (afterwards Sir George) Grey, the then Governor of New Zealand, in a despatch to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, dated December 6th, 1848, somewhat strongly advocated the choice of the latter district; but a great obstacle to the carrying out of this idea was found in the difficulty of acquiring the land on reasonable terms from the Native owners. On the other

hand, the whole of the enormous tract of country lying between the river Hurunui (the southern boundary of Nelson) and Port Chalmers, or Otago, and stretching from sea to sea, had already been ceded by the Maori owners to the Europeans. On August 25th, 1848, Governor Grey forwarded to the Secretary of State for the Colonies a copy of the agreement by which the chiefs and people of the Ngaitahu tribe formally made over to Colonel Wakefield, agent of the New Zealand Company, all the country comprising what are now known as the Canterbury Province, the Province of Westland, and great part of Otago, for a comparatively small sum of money. This cession did not, however, include Banks Peninsula itself, as the Natives had already sold the whole of that block to a French Company, whose settlers were actually residing on it. The New Zealand Company made no attempt to colonize the large area they thus acquired, further than by handing over to the new Canterbury Association an extent of 1,000,000 acres on the plains. This was afterwards increased to 2,400,000 acres. In 1849, Captain Thomas, agent for the Association, wrote from Auckland to Governor Grey, stating that he had examined the harbour of Port Cooper and the



surrounding country, and having found the land suitable for the purposes of the Association, he formally requested His Excellency's sanction to Port Cooper as the site of the Canterbury settlement. This was granted; the surveys of the harbour and plains were at once pushed on, and preparations made for receiving the settlers sent out by the Association. In the meantime, negotiations were also being carried on between the New Zealand Company and the French Association who held possession of Banks Peninsula; and on October 12th, 1849, the directors of the former Company announced to the Colonial Office that they had taken over all the property and interests of the French, or *Nanto-Bordelaise*, Company, in New Zealand, for the sum of £4,500.

On December 16th, 1850, the first emigrant ship from England arrived at Port Cooper, and the actual commencement of the settlement may be said to have then taken place.

The design of the Canterbury Association, as put forward in the prospectus issued in 1848, was to establish in New Zealand a settlement complete in itself, having as little connection as possible with the other centres of population in the Colony, and composed entirely of members of the United Church of Great Britain and Ireland. The Committee of Management proposed to reserve to themselves the right "of refusing to allow any person of whom they might disapprove to become an original purchaser of land." This is not the place to discuss the theory of the scheme of the founders, nor to detail the rapid steps by which the Church of England settlement, as proposed, became an ordinary community of mixed denominations. It will be sufficient to say that long before the establishment of representative government for the Colony, by Act of the Imperial Parliament in 1852, grave doubts were expressed, even by some of the managers of the Association themselves, of the success of this part of the scheme; and, in point of fact, Canterbury offered so many material and temporal advantages to immigrants of all kinds and classes, that the wall of exclusiveness was soon broken down, and the community became, like all other communities, an aggregation of settlers from various countries and of various denominations.

The affairs of the Canterbury Association were managed in England by a Committee, and Mr. John Robert Godley was sent out by them to conduct their public business in New Zealand. Mr. Godley arrived in Canterbury in the year 1850, and remained as its resident official head

until 1853: then, the elevation of the settlement into one of the Provinces of New Zealand, under "The Constitution Act, 1852," and the annulling of all previous charters to the separate little colonies, rendered the further continuance of the Association needless. During his term of office, Mr. Godley's remarkable energy, activity, and earnestness of purpose contributed most powerfully to the success of the settlement, and he left New Zealand for England followed by the general regret of the colonists—regret which was increased by the knowledge that his unwearied attention to his work, and to the welfare of those under his charge, had entailed upon him a permanent loss of health and strength. The first superintendent of Canterbury under the new Act was Mr. James Edward Fitzgerald, another original member of the Association, who held office till 1857. He was succeeded by Mr. William Sefton Moorhouse, Superintendent from 1857 to 1863; Mr. Samuel Bealey from 1863 to 1866; Mr. Moorhouse again till 1868; and Mr. William Rolleston from 1868 to the present time.

In the three years which elapsed between the arrival of the first settlers and the meeting of the first Provincial Council, the Canterbury settlement made remarkable progress, and actually became in that short time not only self-supporting, but able to export largely to other colonies. This progress has been, almost without a check, continued to the present time. The revenues of the Province, both from sales of Crown lands and from other sources, have been steadily and rapidly increasing. In 1858 Mr. Godley was able to announce to the friends of the Colony in England that the Province of Canterbury alone, with a population at that time of 7,000, raised a revenue of £96,000; seven times as much, per head, as the revenue of England, and nearly twice as much, per head, as the revenue of the Colony of Victoria, "the richest community in the world up to this time." This, of course, was exclusive of the revenue raised in the Province for the general colonial purposes of New Zealand. For the year ending September 30th, 1873, the revenues of the Province of Canterbury, also exclusive of Colonial revenue, amounted to almost £650,000, the estimated population being 53,700.

#### BOUNDARIES, AREA, AND PHYSICAL FEATURES.

Canterbury contains that portion of the Middle Island, bounded on the North by the river Hurunui (the southern boundary





CHRISTCHURCH.



of Nelson), on the east by the sea, on the west by a line drawn along the ridge of the Southern Alps (the boundary of Westland), and on the south by the river Waitaki (the northern boundary of Otago). The area of the Province is about 8,693,000 acres, of which 2,500,000 form a vast plain sloping gently down from the mountain ranges to the sea. There are also large tracts of undulating downs capable of cultivation. On the eastern edge rises Banks Peninsula, a hilly district, comprising about 250,000 acres, and composed of a number of peaks, ridges, and basins, the remains of long-extinct volcanoes. The capital of the Province is Christchurch, situated on the plain at the northern edge of the peninsula, and about five miles from the sea, on the small river Avon. Christchurch proper contains an area of rather more than one mile square, with (in 1871) 7,931 inhabitants; but large numbers of people reside outside the city itself, and the population of the town and its immediate suburbs was, in that year, 12,466. The port town is Lyttelton, on the harbour of Port Cooper, one of the basins of Banks Peninsula, connected with Christchurch by a railway, having a tunnel through the hills. Its population in 1871 was 2,551. In the northern part of the Province there are the towns of Kaiapoi (population 868), Rangiora, Leithfield, and Oxford, besides many smaller villages. West of Christchurch there is no important town. To the south are Timaru (population 1,418), Geraldine, Temuka, Ashburton, Southbridge, Leeston, &c., and many villages. On the peninsula itself are Akaroa (on a fine harbour), and smaller settlements in almost every bay. The population above, of the towns, is taken from the census returns of 1871; owing to natural increase and immigration, the numbers have since then been considerably enlarged. The total population of the Province in 1871 was 46,801; and at the end of 1873 it was estimated at about 54,000.

From the mountain ranges on the west to the sea on the east many rivers flow across the Canterbury plain. As a rule, these rivers are extremely rapid, not

running in deep streams between well-defined banks, but shallow and flowing on shingle beds, sometimes more than a mile wide. The chief of these are the Waimakariri, the Rakai, the Rangitata, and on the northern and southern boundaries, the Hurunui and Waitaki. Smaller ones are the Waipara, Ashley, Selwyn, Ashburton, Hinds, Opihi, &c. These rivers when low are, as a rule, easily forded, but when in flood are often very dangerous. They are, however, now rapidly being bridged, and in a year or two there will be no danger on the main lines of road in the Province.

Canterbury is divided for various purposes into several districts—First, General Assembly electoral districts, returning twelve members: second, twenty-four Provincial Council districts, returning thirty-nine members: third, thirty-eight road districts, administered by Boards of five members each, having the control of the roads and smaller bridges—these do not include the towns of Christchurch, Lyttelton, Kaiapoi, and Timaru, which are governed by Municipalities: fourth, eighty-four educational districts. As population and settlement progress the numbers of these will be increased. As the whole Province is in one way or another included in the above divisions, and as the general character of the country does not vary much, it is not possible to name any distinctive features peculiar to any one division. The Province may be considered as divided into three longitudinal zones—the mountain zone, comprising the whole western and part of the northern portions, and almost exclusively devoted to pasturage; the central or plain zone, comprising almost all the rest of the Province, pastoral in those portions as yet unbought from the Crown, agricultural in the rest; and the peninsular or eastern zone, partly timber-producing forest, partly pastoral, partly devoted to cheese-making and dairy farming. On January 1st, 1873, there were in Canterbury 2,595,960 sheep over six months of age; and a return of the agricultural produce of the Province, compiled in February, 1873, gave the following amounts:—

Acres broken up but not under Crop.	Wheat.		Oats.		Barley.		Hay.		Potatoes.		Other Crops.	Sown Grasses.	Total under Crop, including Sown Grasses.
	Acres.	Yield, Bushels.	Acres.	Yield, Bushels.	Acres.	Yield, Bushels.	Acres.	Yield, Tons.	Acres.	Yield, Tons.	Acres.	Acres.	
48,570	68,402†	1,487,174‡	40,357	697,544‡	6,810	134,007	10,492	12,051‡	1,888	8,020‡	6,726‡	195,420‡	318,059‡

\* Including 9,184 acres sown for green food or hay.

† Including land in hay in previous column.

From the separate return published, showing the acreage in cultivation and the produce thereof in the different divisions of the Province, it is found that the chief wheat-producing districts are the Ellesmere and Courtenay in the centre, the Eyreton and the Kowai in the north, and the Geraldine and Seadown in the south. Those producing the most oats and barley are, for the north, the Kowai, Eyreton, and Mandeville; for the centre, the Courtenay, Lincoln, and Ellesmere; and for the south, the Geraldine district. The area under permanent pasture is spread fairly over the Province. The average yield of grain for the Province appears to be, for the year 1872 — Wheat 21, oats 22½, barley 19, bushels to the acre, and the year was not a favourable one. The figures in the last two columns do not show the whole area in English grasses, as there are large tracts, notably on the peninsula and in the more swampy portions of the Province, where English grass has spread luxuriantly without any previous cultivation.

The means of communication in Canterbury, by roads, railways, and telegraphs, are being rapidly extended. The telegraph system in operation includes a line, part of the trunk line through the Island, from north to south in the Province, with stations at every convenient place; and lines from Christchurch to Hokitika (on the West Coast), to Lyttelton, and to Akaroa. These telegraphs are under the direction of the Colonial Government, and messages are sent to any part of the Colony at a very moderate tariff.

The loading of the Province has been carried on energetically since its foundation. Up to the year 1863, the roads were constructed and maintained by the Provincial authorities, and in the comparatively small area to which, while settlement was as yet not far extended, their operations were confined, the Government expended a sum of £250,000 on roads and bridges between the year 1850 and 1863. In the last-mentioned year, the Provincial Council passed the first Roads Ordinance, relegating the administration of the roads to Boards elected in the several districts established by the Ordinance. With various amendments this system has been maintained, so that there are now thirty-eight road districts. The Boards are enabled to carry out their functions, first, by means of grants from the Provincial Treasury; secondly, by grants from the Colonial Government; thirdly, by rates. In the early years of the settlement, it was intended that, of the price paid to the Treasury for Crown lands,

£1 per acre should be devoted to making roads and bridges where the land was purchased. This plan was, however, not systematically carried out, and an arrangement was afterwards made that 25 per cent. of the land fund should be expended in this direction. This likewise it was not found possible to strictly perform, and the grants to Road Boards from Provincial funds have been usually made according as the exigencies of the public service permitted or prevented large appropriations to them. The total sum voted to Road Boards by the Provincial Council, from 1863 to October, 1873, amounted to rather over £200,000. This was exclusive of large sums spent by the Government on roads and the more important bridges. For instance, the great western road from Christchurch to Hokitika absorbed about £150,000; and the Provincial Council, during one financial year alone, from September, 1872, to September, 1873, voted £160,000 for roads and large bridges, beyond the Road Board grant. The second source of revenue of the Boards is from grants from the Colonial Government. These date from 1870, and depend upon annual votes of the General Assembly. Thirdly, the Boards derive revenue from rates, under the Roads Ordinances passed by the Provincial Council since 1863. The maximum ordinary rate permitted to be levied is one shilling in the pound on the annual value of the property in the district; but the Board can, if necessary, raise special rates, not exceeding two shillings in the pound, for works of emergency. The rating capabilities of the different districts vary considerably, according to their position and the character of the land.

In the greater portion of the Province, owing to the level nature of the country, road-making has not been difficult, and metalled roads are now rapidly forming a network over its surface. In some districts there is greater difficulty, owing to the presence of hills, gullies, or streams; but generally the state of road communication in Canterbury is very good and safe. It is a condition of the sale of Crown lands, that every section purchased shall have a road to it laid off on the map, so that no land is left without the means of being rendered easily accessible.

There are no industries peculiar to any one district of the Province, beyond the division (not, however, well defined) between its agricultural and pastoral portions. But mining for coal, iron ore, and other minerals, stone quarries, brick and clay works, &c., may be said to be confined to



the hilly regions; flax-mills, meat-preserving works, &c., to the plains.

The climate of Canterbury is, as a rule, so far like that of England that it is quite suited to English people. Although at times the wind blows very hard, and especially from the N.W. in summer, yet there is so little severe winter, and the summer heats are so moderated by breezes, that the climate may be considered an excellent one. In some years the Province is visited by severe droughts—one, for instance, lasting through the summer season, from September to April, without rain; in others there has been an excessive rainfall; but these are exceptional cases. From abstracts of the monthly returns for 1872 (a remarkably hot and dry year), it appears that the mean maximum temperature in the sun at Christchurch was  $120.8^{\circ}$  (highest, January,  $130.2^{\circ}$ ); the mean minimum temperature at night  $19.3^{\circ}$  (lowest, June,  $5.2^{\circ}$ ); the mean temperature in the shade for the year,  $53.6^{\circ}$ . These figures denote an equable climate peculiarly adapted to Englishmen; and the effect of this is shown by the fact that trees and plants from Home flourish with great luxuriance, whilst others, which an English winter would destroy, grow without danger in the open air. It must be understood that the above remarks apply chiefly to the eastern or lower part of the Province; naturally, amongst the mountains, and higher from the sea, the climate is somewhat changed. There is more rain, more cold in winter, and less heat in summer. But in no part can the Province be said to have a bad or inclement climate.

In a report on the climate of New Zealand, by Dr. Hector, published by command in 1869, the annual mean temperature of Canterbury for the eleven previous years is given as  $55.1^{\circ}$ , and the mean annual rainfall at Christchurch, for the same period, 31.056 inches.

#### LAND AND LAND REGULATIONS.

Roughly speaking, the land in Canterbury may be divided into mountain and plain. The mountains, as a rule are too steep to be susceptible of cultivation, but contain numerous small valleys which will some day be worked. Their sides, except on the most elevated portions, where snow lies for the greater portion of the year, are well grassed and are excellent sheep pasture. The plain land varies considerably. On the east, next to the sandhills of the coast itself, a broad belt of remarkably rich soil runs throughout its length; the slope further inland becomes lighter and drier,

and in some parts stony, but easily cultivated, and requiring generally no more preparation for the plough than burning off the native grasses. Higher up is often found another belt of richer land, until the foot of the hill is reached. The lower country is well watered, and the whole plain is intersected by rivers, creeks, and water-courses, though in the higher portions, in summer, there are sometimes trying droughts. That the country generally is very well adapted for agriculture is shown by the quantities of the various cereals grown, and the excellent quality of the English grasses which are now being largely cultivated throughout its extent. The lower hills, and more especially the peninsula, are rapidly being covered with English grass and clover, which spread of their own accord, killing the native pasture, and are, in consequence, every year able to carry larger numbers of stock. In the wetter and richer lands, grow large quantities of *Phormium tenax* (native flax), and these require to be destroyed before the land can be ploughed; but the soil beneath is usually so productive as to well repay this cost, and, moreover, the plant itself may, in many localities, be made a source of profit by sending it to a flax-mill.

The principle of the land regulations of Canterbury is free selection at a sufficient price. Briefly, they may be summed up as follows:—With the exception of reserves for towns or for public purposes, the whole of the land of the Province is open for sale at £2 per acre. The purchaser has only to select the piece he requires, put in an application to the Waste Lands Board, pay the price, and possess the land. He first receives a "Licence to occupy," the land is then surveyed as quickly as possible, and a Crown grant is prepared, signed by the Governor of New Zealand, and handed over to him. Priority of application gives a prior right of purchase. Land sales are held at Christchurch twice every week. Such are the main features of the regulations, and that they are successful is shown by the enormous quantities purchased from the Crown in the last twenty years; the acreage sold up to 1st October, 1873, being 1,101,583 acres, realizing £2,203,166. There are, however, certain restrictions in the sale:—1. No section of rural land, containing less than 20 acres, is sold as above: pieces of less than that area are put up to public auction at an upset price of £2 per acre. By an Act of the General Assembly passed last session (1873), auction sales of such pieces are to take place every three months: the land, if not then sold, is open



to purchase at the same price. 2. Every section of rural land is sold in one block, and, except where the natural features of the country, or frontage lines (roads, rivers, public reserves, &c.) prevent it, of a rectangular form. 3. All sections of rural land are sold subject to a right of laying out a road or roads across them, if found necessary, on survey. This right of course ceases as soon as the Crown grant is issued.

Until purchased from the Crown, as above stated, the waste lands may be rented for pasturage. (All the land available for this purpose has been long ago taken up.) The tenant does not receive a lease of the land, or acquire any right whatever to the soil, or the timber growing on it, but only a licence to depasture stock on it; any person being at liberty to buy at any time wherever he pleases, provided the piece he wants is not already in the possession of another owner, or reserved by the Government. The pasturage rents are not high. The "runs," as they are called, vary from 5,000 acres upwards; and, under the present regulations, the tenant pays a rent of £1 per 100 acres. For the year 1873, the pasturage rents of the Province amounted to £50,000, representing 5,000,000 acres. In 1880, the whole of these licences cease and determine, and other regulations will doubtless be made. Naturally, some runs, as those on the plains, are constantly exposed to being purchased by free selectors as freehold. Others, as in the hills, will only partially ever be used for any other purpose than feeding sheep. Under the regulations of the Canterbury Association, the tenants of the waste lands, or "runholders," were allowed a right of pre-emption over 250 acres of land round their homesteads. Afterwards, this right was extended so as to cover and protect certain improvements, such as fencing, &c., which they might erect on their runs. In 1867 these provisions, having been found to act as a check to the settle-

ment of the country, and to prevent purchase by free selectors, were repealed, and pre-emptive rights are not now granted. There are, however, considerable areas still held under these old rights. Any person wishing to purchase a section in this condition must deposit the price of the land (at £2 per acre) with the Waste Lands Board, and the holder of the right is allowed six weeks to buy the land. If he does not buy it, the person originally applying becomes the owner. These pre-emptive rights cease and determine in 1880.

Large reserves of waste lands have been from time to time made by the Provincial Government for various public requirements, such as education, ferry, road, or railway purposes, cemeteries, race-courses, recreation grounds, and public parks, &c., &c. According to the regulations, these reserves are temporarily made by the Superintendent, and, if agreed to, confirmed by the Provincial Council at its next session. If afterwards it is found desirable to throw any of them open for sale, it must be done by Ordinance of the Provincial Council.

In convenient places, as required, townships are reserved, surveyed, and sold, by sections, in sizes determined by the Superintendent and Provincial Council. These sections are put up to auction, usually at the upset price of £50 per acre. Many of the towns and villages in the Province are, however, portions of private property, divided and sold by their owners.

#### LAND STILL AVAILABLE.

In the year 1869, a return was laid on the table of the Provincial Council, classifying the land in the Province, and showing the results of—1. Total acreage. 2. Land sold to date. 3. Number of acres reserved. 4. Estimated acreage of good arable land unsold. 5. Acreage of first and second-class grazing land unsold. 6. Land worthless or of little value. The following table shows the totals:—

Total Acreage.	Land Sold.	Reserves.		Good Arable Land.	Grazing Land.		Land worthless, or of little value.
		Educational.	Other purposes.		1st Class.	2nd Class.	
8,693,027	742,375	18,416	46,790	948,100	2,742,457	1,964,716	2,280,178

From the date of the table to January, 1874, 359,208 acres were sold. Deducting this amount (which has not by any means been all of the class "good arable land") from the totals in columns 5 and 6, (3,090,557) there remains, as likely to be

sold, 3,331,349 acres. It may, however, be supposed that a proportion of this is high downland, and will take some time to pass into the hands of private owners. Making a large deduction for this, there yet remains probably an area of 2,000,000 acres available as good land for settlement. But from this again has to be deducted the quantity reserved for public purposes since 1869, amounting to, for general education, 33,180, and for other public requirements about 12,000 acres; total, say, 45,000 acres: also, the land to be taken for railways and roads, the quantities of which cannot well be estimated. There are, besides, large areas temporarily reserved, but not yet confirmed by the Council. Probably the acreage withdrawn from sale under the two columns 5 and 6, from 1869 to 1873, for all purposes, may be taken at not less than 100,000 acres; leaving, therefore, 1,900,000 acres for settlement. It is not, however, easy to say how much of this would be "good arable land."

Under column 7 may be placed the reserves for higher and technical education, amounting at present to about 320,000 acres.

The reserves for general educational purposes, 51,596 acres, are open for lease in blocks of 100 acres and upwards, on reasonable terms; and 25,901 acres have been let to various tenants.

#### LAND UNDER CULTIVATION — SMALL FARMS.

As stated above, a very large proportion of the available good land of Canterbury has been purchased from the Crown, and, in point of fact, for some distance round the various centres of population, it may be said to be, as a rule, under cultivation. The return already given shows that in February, 1873, there were 367,228 acres cultivated (including land then broken up, but not under crop). We may add to this at least 10,000 acres as broken up since February, making a total of 377,228 acres under cultivation. The land purchases to October, 1873, were 1,101,583 acres; there remain, therefore, not less than 724,355 acres of freehold to be improved. Of this quantity, however, some portion is hilly, or already naturally grassing itself; but it is clear that there are several hundred thousand acres in private hands awaiting cultivation. The chief reason why these lands have not yet been improved is the absence of population; and if farmers with small capital could be introduced in sufficient numbers, a very large proportion of this acreage

would be cultivated. It would of course be a question for the immigrant whether he would purchase land from the Crown at £2 per acre, at a long distance from a market, or at a higher price from a private individual within easy distance. But in case he should decide on the latter, there would not be any difficulty in his acquiring at a fairly reasonable price the land he might want.

As a general rule, immigrants would not find it easy to rent small improved farms. In the first place, men who have bought and cultivated blocks of land in Canterbury, have generally done so with the intention of permanently settling on them. Of the number of sections held by absentees, or by persons who have bought land as a speculative investment, those pieces which have been let were taken by the tenant in their unimproved state. Secondly, the freehold owners would not be inclined to let improved land, with fences, cultivations, or homesteads, to new comers unknown to responsible persons here. They would always prefer as a tenant a man who had been some little time in the country. Of course, these remarks apply more particularly to immigrants of the farming class arriving with small capital. The difficulty would naturally be far less provided they could satisfy the landowner of their solvency.

But the case is different as regards unimproved land. As already remarked, there are large numbers of sections merely awaiting increased population in order to be brought under cultivation. It is, however, difficult to lay down any scale as a guide to the average renting value of land. In England, a land agent in any county would be able to state almost exactly the value of any farm either for sale or lease; but it is impossible to do so here. In Canterbury, a farm, say in the north, on the Ashley Downs, thirty miles from Christchurch, might perhaps be let for a lower rental than one in the Ellesmere district at the same distance from town, and higher than one in Oxford district. Distance from a market, or from a line of railway, or a shipping port, besides the varying quality of the land, has so marked an effect on the value, that no rule can be laid down on this subject. It may, however, be stated that good unimproved land, at a reasonable distance from town, may be had at a rental of from 3s. to 6s. per acre. Poorer land might be taken at a less, richer at a higher rental. The rich and valuable farms near Christchurch often carry a rent of from 20s. to 60s. per acre.

A system is frequently adopted of letting land to farmers for a short term, the rent



to be paid by the crops. The rental and conditions vary in the different districts. A common plan is to lease land for two years, the tenant to fence it, take two crops off it, lay it down in grass, and return it to the owner. According to the position and character of the land, the rent varies. Sometimes, the tenant pays a bushel of wheat per acre, the owner finding the grass seed; sometimes, the tenant takes the whole crop in consideration of fencing the land. Sections near town, or in the rich low lands near the coast, would of course be let under different conditions from the higher and drier soils farther inland.

There is also a system of letting land under a purchasing clause; in fact, selling on deferred payments. This is not so much in vogue as formerly, for in bad years the tenants, finding that they were not working the land to a sufficient profit, exhausted the soil by continual grain crops, and left it either before or at the end of their term without completing their bargain, the land being rendered less valuable than when they took it.

On the whole, it may be said that an immigrant arriving with a small capital would find no difficulty in renting an unimproved section, and that at profitable rates; but that it would not be easy for him to get an improved farm, unless he was known to be in a position to work it properly.

#### INDUSTRIES, EXISTING AND POSSIBLE.

The two chief articles of production in Canterbury are wool and grain. But besides these a large export trade is carried on in flax; provisions (preserved and cured); skins, hides, and leather; dairy produce; and a number of miscellaneous articles. The return given below shows the total quantities and values of the various exports from the Province for the year, September 30th, 1872, to September 29th, 1873. This period has been taken as it represents the whole of an export season of wool (shearing commencing about the end of October) and almost entirely that of grain. But it must be remarked, firstly, that the return does not show the full exporting power of the Province in either of the above staples, as a considerable quantity of each is sent to the port of Oamaru, in the adjoining Province of Otago, and is, therefore shown in the returns for that Province. Secondly, the return takes no account of the quantities of grain or other produce consumed in the Province itself. According to the return already given, it appears that the total estimated grain produce in February, 1873, was 2,519,326 bushels of

wheat, oats, and barley. The harvest, however, did not yield as favourably as was expected, and a reduction has therefore to be made from this amount. The quantities of grain exported during the twelve months appear, as under, to be 906,955 bushels, besides 2,350 tons of flour, bran, &c., which may be taken to represent about 90,000 bushels more, making a total of about 1,000,000 bushels exported. There remains, therefore, a large quantity of grain produced, and not shown as exported. The same remarks apply to dairy produce (the greater part of which is consumed here) and to cured provisions (hams and bacon). With regard to wool, skins, and hides, flax, and preserved meats, the figures given would more nearly represent the production (excepting the quantities sent *via* Oamaru), as almost the whole of these are sent away to other countries. The manufacture of leather, although rapidly becoming more important, cannot, as yet, greatly affect the return.

The values of these various articles fluctuate in different years. The following is taken from the *Lyttelton Times* weekly price list, and may be considered as a fair sample of the values at the beginning of November, 1873:—

Wheat is quoted at 4s. 9d. per bushel; oats, 4s. 5d.; barley, 6s. 9d.; flour, from £11. 10s. to £12 per ton; butter, 7d. per lb.; cheese, 7d. to 7½d.; bacon and hams, 8d. to 8½d.; wool may be said to be worth, all round, 1s. per lb. At the same time, shorn wethers were sold at 10s. a head; wethers in wool, from 13s. to 14s., and up to 20s.; fat lambs, 7s. to 13s., according to quality; while mutton is quoted at 2½d. per lb. for shorn, 3½d. for unshorn sheep. Fat cattle, about 20s. per 100 lb.; store cattle, from 30s. to £4. 10s. each. Best sheep-skins, from 4s. to 6s. 7d. each; inferior, from 1s. 3d. to 3s. 7d.; lamb-skins, 8d. to 1s. 6d. each; salted hides, 4½d. per lb.; fresh hides, 4d.; horse-skins, 6s. each.

Of course, these values vary according to the season of the year, the state of trade, and the ruling values in the English or Colonial markets.

#### RETURN showing the Quantities and Values of Articles Exported from Canterbury, for the Year ending 30th September, 1873:—

Wool. — 13,098,387 lb., valued at £799,090.

Grain, Wheat, Oats, and Barley. — 906,955 bushels, valued at £204,000.

Flour, Bran, Sharps, &c. — 2,350 tons, valued at £30,000.

Sheep-skins. — 79,510, valued at £13,884.



Hides.—10,089, valued at £7,410.

Provisions (including both cured and preserved meats). — 10,848½ cwt., valued at £35,196.

Dairy Produce, Butter, and Cheese.— 2,118½ cwt., valued at £7,667.

Phormium (Flax).—1,489½ tons, valued at £34,237.

Miscellaneous.—Valued at £29,604.

Total Value of Exports, £1,161,088.

AVERAGE PRICES of GRAIN and FLOUR in CANTERBURY from 1869 to 1873.

	1869	1870	1871	1872	1873
Wheat, per bushel :—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
March	8 9	8 0	4 0	4 0	4 8
August	4 8	8 9	6 0	4 9	4 6
Nov.	5 0	4 6	4 8	5 0	4 9
Average	4 4	8 9	4 9	4 7	4 6
Average for five years, 4s. 4½d.					
Flour, per ton :—	£. s.	£. s.	£. s.	£. s.	£. s.
March	12 10	9 10	11 0	11 0	11 0
August	18 10	11 10	17 0	13 0	11 10
Nov.	14 0	12 0	18 0	12 0	11 10
Average	18 10	11 0	13 10	12 0	11 5
Average for five years, £12. 5s.					
Oats, per bushel :—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
March	2 6	2 8	2 2	2 0	2 2
August	3 6	2 9	2 4	2 8	4 8
Nov.	4 8	2 6	2 6	2 6	4 5
Average	3 5	2 6	2 4	2 8	3 8
Average for five years, 2s. 9d.					
Barley, per bushel :—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
March	4 8	3 6	3 0	4 8	7 0
August	5 0	3 0	3 0	6 6	6 9
Nov.	6 0	3 0	3 0	5 0	6 9
Average	5 1	3 2	3 0	5 8	6 10
Average for five years, 4s. 8d.					

The average prices of grain here shown appear to be considerably below English

prices : yet farming evidently pays in Canterbury. One reason for this is, perhaps, the comparative cheapness of many necessities of life here.—(See return given below.) But, besides, almost all harvest operations are performed by machinery, and the farmer is therefore enabled to make a profit out of a lower price than he would obtain at Home. Moreover, at least as yet, farmers here have not been obliged to enter into such heavy expenses for superior and scientific farming as their English brethren.

The difficulty of obtaining a supply of skilled labour has hitherto prevented the establishment in the Province of many industries, and various proposals have from time to time been made with a view of promoting them. In 1870, a Select Committee of the Provincial Council on this question sat for some time and presented a report embodying various suggestions. A system of bonuses, as advocated in this report, has been repeatedly tried, but has not hitherto met with much success, owing to the immense difficulty of obtaining skilled labour at such prices as would render manufactures remunerative.

The preparation of *Phormium* fibre can hardly now be called a new industry, though the high rates of wages have not allowed it to be carried on so generally as might be desired. Many of the mills which were in operation in Canterbury a year or two ago have been closed from this cause, and those that are still being carried on cannot be said to be worked to great profit. Still, if a sufficient number of labourers were introduced, this industry, for which a practically unlimited supply of raw material is available, is capable of being largely extended and profitably worked, especially as it does not require highly-skilled artisans. Ordinary labourers are quite equal to the general work of a flax-mill, as at present arranged.

The Select Committee before referred to recommended in their report that assistance should be given by the State to start factories for cheese (on the United States plan), beetroot sugar, woollen goods, Roman and Portland cement, and to encourage sericulture, forest-tree planting, and coal and iron mining. A Committee of the House of Representatives, appointed during the last session at Wellington, on "Colonial Industries," repeated some of these recommendations, and added fish-curing and paper-making to the list. All of these industries could with great advantage be introduced into the Province, as the raw materials for most of them already exist in large quantities, and those for the rest

could be easily obtained. Two woollen factories already started, one in Nelson and the other in Otago, have met with very considerable success; so much so, indeed, that it has been thought worth while in England to manufacture cloths and send them out to this Colony for sale under the names of "Nelson tweed," and "Mosgiel tweed." There is an unlimited supply of raw material for this industry in this Province, and it has often been remarked with wonder that Canterbury has not long ago possessed a woollen factory. It is understood that measures are being taken for promoting a company with this object. Probably before long the scheme will be fairly launched.\* For the cultivation of beetroot for sugar, the climate and soil of Canterbury appear to be well adapted, and it is hoped that steps may soon be taken in this direction. With regard to cheese factories, the pasture land is so extensive and rich, and the quality of the stock yearly becomes so much improved that there is no reason why a cheese factory as suggested should not be successful. Large quantities of cheese are now produced, especially in the districts on Banks Peninsula, and it is readily sold at good prices.

The production of tinned and preserved meats is carried on at several places in the Province, but is capable of being further extended, as the sale of these articles in the English markets is rapidly increasing year by year, and the meats from Canterbury have always obtained a good name. The Canterbury Meat Export Company took prize medals at the Intercolonial Exhibition at Christchurch in 1872, and at the late great Exhibition at Vienna. Cured meats are at present largely manufactured and exported, and there is room for yet more workers in this branch. The curing of fish has been commenced by the Canterbury Deep Sea Fishing Company, and has, so far, been highly successful. The coast appears to teem with useful and excellent fish, and a further extension of this industry may be expected.

It appears that materials for the manufacture of cement exist in the Province, and as this article is becoming every year more and more required, there is a good opening for starting its production here.

It is probable that the tow and refuse fibre from the *Phormium* plant will be available for the manufacture of paper, an article for which a large market is open in

the Colony. This industry, it is to be hoped, will also before long be established here.

Sericulture has for some little time been carried on in a small way, and, from the appearance of cocoons exhibited in Christchurch in 1872, successfully. The mulberry grows well in the Province, and the cultivation of silkworms, already begun by one or two persons, will probably soon be prosecuted more extensively.

The above represent the chief industries suggested by the various Committees as likely to flourish in Canterbury. There is no doubt that with a more numerous population, and a chance of obtaining labour at reasonable rates, they could all be profitably and extensively prosecuted. Our communications with other countries are every year becoming more rapid and easy, and new markets are being made available to us.

#### TIMBER AND TIMBER PLANTING.

Canterbury cannot be called a well-timbered country. On Banks Peninsula, there are the remains of forests formerly very extensive, and a large quantity of timber is still sawn in that district. But already the peninsula is becoming cleared of its wood, and probably the supply of native timber from the different bays will not last for many years more. In the Little River district, on the south-west side of the peninsula, is situated what is now the chief area of forest land, principally consisting of totara, rimu, and black and white pine trees. The mountain ranges of Canterbury are in many parts densely wooded, but the forests as a rule consist of birch (*Betula*) trees, and these are not of much value for sawn timber, though they make excellent posts, rails, or bridge piles. At Oxford, in the north of the Province, a considerable timber trade is carried on, the forest there containing birch, rimu, totara, and pine. Some patches of timber also occur at Mount Peel, on the Rangitata, Waimata, and other places in the south of the Province. But the supply is not by any means equal to the demand in Canterbury, and in consequence large quantities of timber have to be imported.

The owners of land are every year more and more turning their attention to tree-planting. The Canterbury plains may be said to have been practically woodless when the first settlers arrived. Now, however, young plantations are visible in every direction, and as trees grow with great rapidity, soon render the country more cheerful and homelike. The Australian gum-trees of

\* A Joint Stock Company, under influential auspices, has been formed since this paper was written.

various descriptions, English forest-trees, and pines, cedars, and cypresses of all sorts, are being more largely planted every year; and an Act of the General Assembly, providing that any person planting one acre of trees should be entitled to receive for it two acres of Crown land, is already beginning to have an excellent effect.

Forest land can be bought in Canterbury in the same manner as any other, namely, at £2 per acre; and in the wooded districts the law provides for allowing licences to be taken out for cutting timber on certain conditions.

#### MINERAL AND OTHER RESOURCES.

The minerals as yet discovered in Canterbury are:—

1. *Coal*.—All along the eastern side of the ranges bordering the plains, extensive seams of brown coal, generally of good quality, occur, which in a few localities have been altered by volcanic agency to bituminous or even anthracitic coal. Some smaller brown coal basins occur also inland, amongst the mountains, and at various points in the north and south. The first-mentioned seams will offer an almost inexhaustible supply of brown coal for all domestic as well as for industrial and locomotive purposes in the Province.

Mines on a small scale have been opened in some places, such as the Malvern Hills, Ashburton, &c. The coal has been for many years in use for domestic purposes, but the want of easy communication and the high price of labour have hitherto prevented its being properly worked. Before a Select Committee of the Provincial Council on Coal Supply, 1873, a mine-owner gave the following, amongst other evidence:—"I call mine a brown coal. I have had a good demand for it. . . . I sold the coal at 16s. a ton, delivered one mile and a half from the pit's mouth. I think that, with a fair demand, I could deliver it at the pit-mouth for 12s. a ton. . . . Drays were coming a distance of twenty and thirty miles for it. . . . If we had a road . . . we could get coal enough to supply all Christchurch, provided it takes and we can get men to work it." Other coal-owners gave similar evidence. A railway is now in course of construction to these seams, and probably in another year or two they will be much more extensively worked.

From various analyses made and scientific and practical opinions expressed regarding Canterbury coal, it appears that while not so valuable as what are called "true" coal, it is quite adapted for industrial purposes.

The same sort of coal is very largely used in Germany, in fact in some parts almost exclusively. Tests of the coal for steam generating, blacksmiths' purposes, and gas-making have been made, and the result, especially for the former purpose, has been most favourable. The anthracitic seams, which occur chiefly near the gorge of the river Rakaiia, have not yet been worked for sale; they are reported to be of considerable extent, and the coal is said to be excellent.

2. *Clay Iron Ore*.—Beds several feet thick occur in many localities, either close to or in the neighbourhood of the brown coal. The ore is of good quality, but has not hitherto been worked.

3. *Fireclays*.—These are found in the same series of beds which contain the seams of coal. They have, to a certain extent, been already used for making drain-pipes, fire-bricks, and pottery; and these industries are every year becoming more important and extended. Samples of pottery from these clays were exhibited at Christchurch in 1872, and were forwarded to the great Exhibition at Vienna in 1873.

4. *Quartz Sands*.—Beds of these, adapted for glass-making, and equal in quality to the best glass sands of Germany (from the brown coal beds), which are so largely exported from that country to England, are found in great abundance, and will no doubt in future offer materials for an important industry. They have not yet been worked.

5. *Limestones*.—There are some fine compact limestones (marble) in the Malvern Hills and other places, which are excellent material for limekilns, and some of them will probably be extensively used also for ornamental purposes.

6. *Building Stones*.—These, of various qualities, grain, and structure, can be obtained in great quantities all over the Province. Banks Peninsula furnishes fine dolerites (bluestones), quartzose trachytes, and trachytic sandstones, which are already used largely in building. The first-named rock can also be obtained in the Malvern Hills, and in the Timaru district, where it often offers fine material for millstones. Some districts, as Ashburton, Malvern Hills, &c., contain fine quartzose porphyries, in blocks of any size; and the newer sedimentary beds furnish also a great quantity of calcareous sandstones, of splendid quality for building purposes. The working of these last is being gradually extended, and they will become still more useful as soon as proper facilities for transport are provided.



Manganese has been found in many places in the Province, as have also indications of copper ore and other minerals, but they have not been thoroughly examined.

As yet, the mills in Canterbury are of only two kinds, flour and flax. Of the first there are many, and as any portion of the country becomes settled, new ones are erected. Canterbury produces far more of breadstuffs than is required by its population, and therefore does not import them. The mills are of all kinds—wind, steam, and water; and the average price for gristing may be taken to be 9d. per bushel of wheat and 6d. per bushel of oats.

Flax or *Phormium* mills are also to be found in many districts in the Province. This industry, however, which a year or two ago, when the new process of dressing the *Phormium* fibre came into general use, promised so well, has unfortunately not answered the expectations formed of it. The causes of its decline cannot well be entered into here; but it appears that the fibre has had to contend, in the home markets, with very great difficulties, and, moreover, it is not yet certain whether the process adopted by the millowners is the one best calculated to clean it. Of the mills started a few years ago, many have been closed, but there are still several left, and these give employment to a large number of hands.

There are three large establishments for the manufacture of preserved meats, several where sheep and other stock are boiled down for tallow, bacon and ham curing factories, iron foundries, saw-mills, and other industrial establishments.

#### \* KINDS OF LABOUR IN DEMAND.

It may be said that in Canterbury there is a demand for almost all kinds of labour. It has before been remarked that if a sufficient supply of labour were obtainable, many new industries would be started and probably worked to profit. As regards trades and occupations already pursued in the Province, they all feel the effects of the high rates of wages, but probably the farmers and owners of rural land suffer the most. It has been of late years difficult to procure sufficient labour at harvest time, and moreover large tracts of land, otherwise quite ready for cultivation and settlement have been unavoidably left unimproved. The introduction of agricultural machinery to a large extent has somewhat neutralized the evil, but a great deal remains to be done before the farmers can derive their proper benefit from the land. The want of speedy and sure means of communication with

markets is of course a great drawback to the prosperity of the agriculturists, and in this respect also the scarcity of labour has had a most injurious effect; for although the great railway scheme adopted by the Colonial Legislature is being carried out as rapidly as possible, and very large sums of money have besides been voted by the Provincial Council of Canterbury for roads, bridges, and other works for improving communication, tenderers for the different contracts have in many cases found it extremely difficult to procure the necessary men for their work; and it has often been proposed that large public works of this nature should be stopped during the summer months, in order that the men should be rendered available for harvesting. In many cases the Road Boards, under whose control most of these works (except railways) are placed, have found it very difficult, and sometimes impossible, to obtain tenders for them at anything like reasonable rates.

In the building trades, the scarcity of labour has brought about a considerable rise in prices, and works of this class have now to be paid for much more dearly than in former years. As the general prosperity of the Province has had its natural effect by stimulating the desire for improved buildings, and the towns and villages are, in almost every case, rapidly extending their boundaries and filling their streets with houses, it need hardly be said that there is a great demand for labour in the above trades.

#### RATES OF WAGES.

The following returns have been compiled as a guide to the ruling rates of wages in Canterbury. The first is a return showing the wages at which immigrants were engaged on their first arrival in the Colony in the year 1873, in the eight ships there named. These ships have been taken as including the greater portion of the year and different seasons. The return is made up from one furnished by the Immigration Office. It is to be remarked that in every case the demand was greater than the supply, and that the immigrants were all engaged within a day or two of their arrival.

Return No. 2 is the rate of agricultural wages and prices, from information supplied by a large employer of labour, whose initials are placed at the head of the return.

Return No. 3 shows the rates of trades wages, from information given by several employers, whose initials are also appended to it.

RETURN No. 1.

*"Himalaya," March, 1873.*

Married men (farm labourers), £75 per annum, and house.

Single men (farm labourers), £35 to £40 per annum and found.

Grooms, £40 per annum and found.

Ropemakers, 7s. per day of eight hours.

Tailors, 8s. per day.

General labourers, £30 per annum and found.

Boys, £10 to £18 per annum and found.

Housemaids, £25 per annum and found.

General servants (female), £20 to £30 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £10 to £18 per annum and found.

*"Mary Sheppard," August, 1873.*

Married couples (man to do general work ; woman to cook, &c.), £60 per annum and found.

Single men (farm labourers), £50 to £52 and found.

Carpenters, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Saddlers, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Smiths, £2, 2s. per week.

Bootmakers, £2 to £3 per week.

Boys, £10 to £15 per annum and found.

Cooks (females), £30 per annum and found.

Housemaids, £20 to £25 per annum and found.

General servants (female), £25 to £30 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £12 to £15 per annum and found.

*"Columbus," September, 1873.*

Married couples (man to do general work ; woman to cook, &c.), £60 to £70 per annum and found.

Married men (farm labourers), 30s. per week, with cottage.

Single men (farm labourers and ploughmen), £50 and found.

Carpenters, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Boys, 8s. to 12s. per week and found.

Housekeepers, £35 per annum and found.

Nurses, £25 per annum and found.

Housemaids, £25 per annum and found.

General servants (female), £25 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £12 to £15 and found.

*"Celestial Queen," October, 1873.*

Married couples (man to do general work ; woman to cook, &c.), £55 to £65 per annum and found ; £78 per annum with house only.

Single men (farm labourers and ploughmen), £40 to £50 per annum and found. In nearly all cases a bonus of £10 offered if remaining twelve months.

Carpenters, 10s. per day of eight hours.

General servants (female), £20 to £25 per annum and found.

*"Adamant," October, 1873.*

Married couples (man to do general work ; woman to cook, &c.), £60 per annum and found.

Married men (farm labourers), £78, cottage and firing.

Single men (ploughmen), £40 to £52 and found, with bonus of £10 after twelve months.

Carpenters, 9s. per day of eight hours.

General labourers, £40 to £52 and found, with bonus of £10 after twelve months.

Cooks (females), £35 per annum and found.

Nurses, £20 per annum and found.

General servants (female), £25 to £30 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £15 to £20 per annum and found.

*"Punjaub," November, 1873.*

Married couples (man to do general work ; woman to cook, &c.), £60 to £70 per annum and found.

Married men (farm labourers), £50 to £60 per annum, self found, and cottage for family.

Single men (farm labourers, ploughmen, and gardeners), £50 to £55 and found.

Carpenters, 8s. to 10s. per day of eight hours.

Bakers, 20s. per week and found.

Boys, £15 to £20 per annum and found.

Cooks (females), £30 to £35 per annum and found.

General servants (female), £20 to £30 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £15 to £20 per annum and found.

Danes and other Foreigners.—General servants (female), £20 per annum and found. Nurse girls, £12 to £15 per annum and found.

*"Merope," November, 1873.*

Married couples (man to do general work ; woman to cook, &c.), £60 to £70 per annum and found.

Married men (farm labourers), £50 to £60, self found, and cottage for family.

Single men (farm labourers, ploughmen, and gardeners), £50 to £55 per annum and found.

Carpenters, 8s. to 10s. per day of eight hours.

Bakers, 20s. per week and found.

Boys, £15 to £26 per annum and found.

Cooks (females), £30 to £35 per annum and found.

General servants, £20 to £30 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £15 to £20 per annum and found.

Danes and other Foreigners. — General servants (female), £20 per annum and found. Nurse girls, £12 to £15 per annum and found.

"Cardigan Castle," November, 1873.

Married men (farm labourers), 30s. per week, with cottage and firing; or £52 per annum, everything found.

Single men (farm labourers), £52 per annum and found.

Carpenters, 10s. per day.

Bakers, £2 per week.

General labourers, 7s. per day.

Boys, £20 to £30 per annum.

Cooks (females), £30 per annum and found.

Nurses, £20 per annum and found.

Housemaids, £20 per annum and found.

General servants (female), £25 to £30 per annum and found.

Nurse girls, £12 to £16 per annum and found.

Danes and other Foreigners. — Families, engaged for bush-work on the peninsula, 6s. per day, with house and firing. General labourers (males), £40 to £45 per annum, with bonus of £5 if approved after twelve months; found.

#### RETURN No. 2.

*Rates of Wages and Prices of Agricultural Labour, from information given by W. B. T., an Employer of Labour.\**

Married couples (man only to work), 30s. per week, with cottage and firing.

Single men, £52 per annum, and found.

Harvest wages, 10s. per week extra.

Hands taken on for harvest, 30s. to 35s. per week.

Men with threshing-machines, 1s. per hour.

Domestic servants in country (women), £30 per annum and found.

Domestic servants (girls), from £15 to £25 per annum and found.

\* Harvest wages during the season 1878-4 were somewhat higher than those given in this return.

Ploughing, if let by contract, from 6s. to 8s. per acre breaking up.

Harvest work (tying and stooking), if let by contract, from 7s. to 10s. per acre, according to crop.

Threshing, by machine, to contractor, as a rule, 4d. per bushel.

Fencing, say for three sods, three wires, 5s. per chain of 22 yards, materials found.

#### RETURN No. 3.

*Rates of Trade Wages, from information given by various Employers.*

##### *Building Trades. (D. R.)*

Carpenters (good), 10s. to 11s. per day of eight hours.

Masons (good), 11s. to 12s. per day of eight hours.

Bricklayers (good), 12s. to 14s. per day of eight hours.

Plasterers (good), 12s. per day of eight hours.

Painters (good), 10s. per day of eight hours.

Plumbers (good), 12s. per day of eight hours.

##### *Iron Trades. (J. A.)*

Blacksmith, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Engineers, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Iron-turners, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Moulders, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Millwrights, 10s. per day of eight hours.

Pattern-makers, 10s. per day of eight hours.

##### *Tailors. (G. F.)*

Journeyman (good) average £3. 10s. to £4 per week.

##### *Leather Trades. (J. Bros.)*

Riveters, £2. 10s. to £3 per week.

Finishers, £3 to £3. 10s. per week.

Bootmakers generally, £2. 10s. to £3 per week.

Curriers (good), £4 per week.

##### *Drapery Trades. (W. P.)*

Apprentices or youths, first year, 10s. per week; second year, 20s. per week; third year, 30s. to 40s. per week.

Junior hands, 40s. to 50s. per week.

Experienced hands, new arrivals, 50s. to 60s. per week.

Experienced hands, of Colonial experience, 80s. per week.

First-class saleswomen and milliners, 50s. to 60s. per week.

Second-class saleswomen and milliners, 20s. to 40s. per week.



Hours of business, 9 a.m. to 6 p.m. except Saturdays, when 9 a.m. to 9 p.m.

The "ration" system, strictly speaking, is not common in Canterbury. On the large sheep runs, where shepherds have to be kept at out-stations sometimes several miles from the homestead, the men usually come in once a week and draw their provisions, which consist generally of flour, tea, sugar, and meat. There does not appear to be any particular scale for rationing labourers, and, practically, men who have not to find themselves, are supplied by their employer without stint. The low price of provisions makes it not worth while to adhere to any strict scale or limits.

#### PROVINCIAL PUBLIC WORKS.

There are a very large number of Provincial public works in progress or contemplated in Canterbury. From various causes, the Province has during the last year or two experienced a wonderful increase of prosperity, and, consequently, the sums of money paid into the Provincial Treasury for waste lands of the Crown, have reached a very great amount. The lands sold during the twelve months ending 30th September, 1872, were 59,485 acres; in the twelve months ending 30th September, 1873, 257,340 acres; realizing, therefore, for the two years £633,650. This sum is distributed by the Provincial Council for various public works, and necessarily there is a great demand for labour to carry them out. The extension of the main railways throughout the country is under the control of the Colonial Government, and the money expended upon those now in course of construction does not therefore come out of the Provincial Treasury. As regards the labour question, however, this difference is quite immaterial; and in the following enumeration of the public works in Canterbury, the railways in course of construction are included in the same category as other works. It may be remarked that two railways, one from Christchurch to Lyttelton, and one from Christchurch southwards as far as the River Selwyn, which were completed entirely by the Province, still require a considerable amount of labour on them by way of maintenance. This is especially the case with regard to the great tunnel at Lyttelton, where, owing to the decaying of the rock in several places, workmen are constantly employed in lining the roof and walls with brick and cement. Up to the beginning of 1873 there were finished and opened in Canterbury, chiefly from Provincial revenue, about fifty miles of railway, including the two above mentioned

and another from Christchurch northwards to Rangiora. These railways are constructed on what is called the "Irish" gauge, 5 ft. 3 in. wide, and, by Act of the General Assembly, certain other lines in the Province, as named below, are to be made on the same gauge. The remaining lines are to be constructed on the narrow, or 3 ft. 6 in. gauge.

Since the beginning of 1873, a further extension of the Southern Railway, ten miles, to the south bank of the river Rakaia, has been opened. The bridge, nearly a mile long, over that river, is a combined cart and railway bridge, being floored with asphalt.

#### RAILWAYS AUTHORIZED AND IN CONSTRUCTION.

The railways in course of construction, or likely to be soon commenced, first claim attention. In the first class are:—1. The extension of the Northern Railway a distance of fourteen miles from the present terminus at Rangiora to Amberley, a village on the bank of the northern branch of the river Kowai. This includes a bridge, three-quarters of a mile long, over the river Ashley, which is now approaching completion. It will be a combined railway and foot-bridge, the Provincial Council having voted a sum of £1,200 for the latter purpose. There will also be two smaller bridges over the branches of the Kowai. The contract for the construction of this line has been let at a cost of, for the Ashley bridge £21,000, and for the remainder of the line £21,000. The line is to be on the 5 ft. 3 in. gauge.

2. A branch railway, 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, from Rangiora to Oxford, twenty miles. This line is almost completed.

3. A branch railway from the Rolleston station on the Southern Railway, to the Malvern Hills. This, which is also on the 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, will terminate in the immediate vicinity of the coal-fields and deposits of iron ore. It is nearly completed.

4. A branch railway from the Racecourse station on the Southern Railway to Southbridge, a township near Lake Ellesmore. This line will connect Christchurch with perhaps the richest agricultural district in the Province. It is being constructed on the 3 ft. 6 in. gauge.

5. The extension of the Southern Railway, twenty miles, from the Rakaia to the south branch of the river Ashburton. This work, on the 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, will probably be finished about April, 1874.

6. A line from Timaru to Temuka, twelve

miles, 3 ft. 6 in. gauge. It includes three large bridges and some heavy cuttings, and is in course of construction.

7. A branch railway from Washdyke, a station on the Timaru and Temuka line, to the Point, seven miles, 3 ft. 6 in. gauge. This is a work paid for out of Provincial funds.

In addition to these works, a large amount of labour is expended yearly on the present lines, as, for instance, in the case of the bridge over the river Selwyn, which, having become decayed, requires an expenditure during the coming year of £11,000; and the conversion, which has been resolved on, of the Southern line from broad to narrow gauge, at a cost of £8,000. The estimates of the Provincial Government for the year 1873-74 contain under this head a total of £160,000.

The second class of railway works includes those already authorized by the General Assembly, but not actually in course of construction, and those which will, probably in the course of the next few years, be undertaken. Under this head come the lines from the Ashburton to Temuka, and from Timaru to the river Waitaki, completing the southern trunk line through the Province; and an extension of the northern line from Amberley to the river Hurunui, an instalment of the trunk line to the West Coast and Nelson, which may be looked forward to as likely to become necessary before long. It is probable that other connecting lines will shortly be required, such as a line from Oxford to Malvern (perhaps extending farther south to join the western districts more intimately together), and branch lines on the plains of the Ashburton and Rangitata.

Of the Provincial works contemplated or already undertaken, the chief are those proposed for the improvement of Lyttelton harbour. These, which include massive stone breakwaters, wharves, jetties, railway extensions, &c., are estimated to cost nearly £180,000, and their completion will of necessity require some years' labour. Contracts for works costing the greater part of this sum have lately been let by public tender, and a large number of hands will be wanted for them. Possibly, as time goes on and the traffic in the harbour increases, still further works of this class will have to be undertaken. Those already proposed will, however, give employment to a small army of workmen.

There are a great number of Provincial works of a miscellaneous character included in the estimates for 1873-74. Some of these

have been already commenced, others are for the present postponed on account of the scarcity of labour. Schedule B of the Estimates, "Buildings and Works," includes sums amounting to about £100,000 for "Buildings" (in this sum being £42,500 for ordinary schools), £158,200 for "Bridges," £29,140 for various "Roads," and £36,360 for "Miscellaneous" works; the total of the schedule amounting to £340,975. Most of these bridges are under contract; but a great number of the largest works, amounting to more than £100,000, have not as yet been touched. Schedule B also includes a sum of £60,000 to be distributed to the various Road Boards in the Province; and as this sum is further increased by the amount of the rates levied by the Boards in their respective districts, there is an ample field for the employment of labour in this direction. The Road Boards, the contractors for railways and other Government works, and the Government itself, found during the past year very great difficulty in procuring labourers, and on this account many important works had to be postponed.

There is one item in the list of "Miscellaneous" works which may excuse a passing remark, viz., the sum of £15,000 for "Water Supply, Malvern to Rolleston." Between these two places lies a stretch of plain land, mostly good, but unfortunately not well watered. It is proposed to bring down across this plain, water from a river near the hills, and to distribute it over the country. It is probable that the actual cost of this work will amount to very much more than the sum named. But, besides affording employment to a number of labourers in its construction, the work will render available for settlement a large area of agricultural land, within easy reach of a market, and as yet unbought from the Crown.

There are certainly in Canterbury a very large number of public works of all descriptions, either at present under contract, or awaiting tenders, or proposed, which will offer employment to immigrants. The enormous revenue now derived from sales of Crown lands may not continue to flow into the Treasury at its present rate for many years more; but there are not now any signs of its ceasing, and the sales every week are as large as ever. In consequence of the great scarcity of labour the question has been seriously discussed, whether it would not be advisable to lay by for a time the greater part of the revenue, and only proceed with a few of the most absolutely necessary works; and the farmers and sheep-owners are often put to serious incon-





TIMARU.



venience by the difficulty of procuring labourers for shearing or harvest, owing to the numbers engaged on the public works. Moreover, the price at which contracts can profitably be taken has of late years very considerably risen.

#### ADVANTAGES OFFERED TO LABOURERS, MECHANICS, SMALL FARMERS, &c.

Canterbury offers to the industrious immigrant of the labouring class a certain prospect of employment, at good wages, for some time to come. In a new country, there is always so large a quantity of work to be performed in bringing the waste land into cultivation, and there are so many public works required to properly develop the resources of the country, that labour must be in demand. That there have been, and probably will be again, times in which the lowering of the prices of our productions in the home markets produces a bad effect on the general prosperity, and thence naturally on the rates of wages for labour, is not to be denied; but labouring men, owing to the generally low prices of the necessaries of life, can support these periods of depression far more easily here than in older countries, and the "bad times" are not, as a rule, of long duration.

For the "small farmer" class there could be no better field than Canterbury. Land is easily procurable, and the greater part of it is well adapted for cultivation. The increase, every year, of the quantity of cultivated land is a proof that agriculture in the Province has hitherto been successful. The great drawback, up to the present time, has been the want of easy communication; but the extension of the railways, and the network of roads now stretching over every portion of the Province, are rapidly producing an alteration for the better in this respect.

Canterbury will, it is hoped, in a very few years be so far provided with railways, that every district will have easy means of communication with the markets, and the roads, under the direction of the various Boards, are every year rapidly improving. It may be mentioned, as interesting to farming immigrants, that, owing to the general mildness of the climate, no special care has to be taken of stock in the winter time. Sheep and cattle can be left out in the fields all the year round: horses have usually, if running loose, a rug placed over them in winter. Severe frosts are unknown: snow, on the plains, seldom lies more than a few hours. Usually, no further preparation of the land is required

for the plough than burning off the native grass. Agricultural machinery is coming into use more and more each year. Reaping and threshing machines have been common for a long time past; but steam cultivation has not as yet been found profitable. A system of reaping, as used in South Australia, by stripping off the ears of corn, instead of cutting it low down to the ground, is being tried, and, it is believed, with some success.

A glance at the wages table will show that men are in demand for almost every trade, and, in fact, ordinary mechanics are perhaps better off than any other class at the present time. With regard to mechanics especially engaged in industries, it is probable that although manufactures and mining industries are as yet hardly in existence, it will not be long before they are started in Canterbury. Amongst those most likely to be promoted in the next few years, may be named woollen mills, iron works, potteries, coal mines, sacking and bagging factories (from *Phormium* fibre), and paper mills. Indeed, the absence of skilled workmen has been the chief reason why these industries have not been already undertaken.

#### PRICES OF FARM STOCK.

The following return, from information by (R.W.), a large dealer in stock, gives the ruling prices:—

Draught horses (fair), from £20 to £40; first-class horses fetch up to £80.

Working oxen (not much in use), £10.

Milk cows, £5 to £8, say average £6. 10s.

Mixed cattle, consisting of cows, heifers, and steers, £3. 10s.

Merino ewes, 4s. 6d. each; Merino wethers (lean), 5s. each; Merino wethers (fat), 8s. each.

Cross-bred ewes (from Merino ewes and long-wool rams), 10s.; ditto wethers, 15s.

Average price of fat bullocks, 20s. per 100 lb.

Average price of fat wethers, 2½d. per lb.

Pure long-wool sheep bring high prices according to breed and condition.

These prices must be taken as the average of the year. They vary from time to time, particularly as regards sheep, in the value of which the fleece forms an important element.

#### PRICES OF NECESSARIES OF LIFE.

The following may be taken as a fair average of prices of the ordinary necessities of life for 1873:—

Tea, say from 2s. 6d. to 5s. per lb.

Sugar, say from 5d. to 6½d. per lb.  
 Bread, say from 6d. to 7d. per 4 lb.  
 Butter, say from 9d. to 1s. 2d. per lb.  
 Cheese, say from 6d. to 9d. per lb.  
 Mutton, say from 2d. to 3d. per lb.  
 Beef, say from 3d. to 6d. per lb.  
 Bacon and hams, say from 8d. to 9d. per lb.  
 Fish, say from 4d. to 6d. per lb.  
 Beer (Colonial), say from 90s. to 170s. per hhd.  
 Beer (English), say £10. 10s. per hhd.  
 Coals, say from 50s. to 75s. per ton.  
 (The last article is chiefly imported from Newcastle, in Australia. It is probable that the opening of the Canterbury coal mines will soon reduce the price very materially.)  
 Fowls, say from 4s. per couple.  
 Ducks, say from 5s. to 6s. per couple.  
 Geese, say from 6s. to 8s. per couple.

#### RELIGIOUS BODIES.

As far as can be ascertained, the following list comprises the most important ecclesiastical organizations in the Province; but, as has been already observed, the population comprises members of almost every form of Church and sect, and even includes several Chinese. There are, therefore, probably many who are not contained in the list below.

The Church of England in Canterbury is governed by a Bishop (who is also Primate of New Zealand) with a chapter and canons. The cathedral in Christchurch, designed by Sir Gilbert Scott, is not yet much more than commenced. Some years ago a sum of over £6,000 was expended in constructing the foundations, which are very massive, and for a long time no further steps were taken in the matter. In 1873, however, £5,000 was devoted to the commencement of the walls, to a height of about 9 ft. all round; and it is expected that gradually the work may be proceeded with, though the size of the building will necessarily cause its completion to be considerably delayed. The total cost of the work is estimated at £50,000. There are, besides, nine churches in Christchurch and its suburbs, one at Lyttelton, and others in the various country towns and villages. Services are also held, when possible, at many of the up-country residences and stations.

The Roman Catholics of Canterbury form part of the Diocese of Wellington. In Christchurch, there are services at the chapel every morning, and on Sundays in the evening. There are also chapels at Lyttelton, Timaru, Temuka, Rangiora,

Akaroa, Leithfield, and occasional services are held at various country places as opportunity occurs. There at present but five priests in the Province, but hopes are entertained that the number may soon be increased. Adjoining the chapel in Christchurch is a Convent of Nuns of the order of Our Lady of Missions, who conduct a large school for girls, well attended by scholars of all denominations. There is also a boys' school attached to the church at Christchurch, and to that at Lyttelton.

The Wesleyan Methodists have two large chapels in Christchurch, and others in the suburbs, in Lyttelton, Kaiapoi, Timaru, and many country places.

The Presbyterians have also two chapels in Christchurch, and several ministers stationed in different parts of the Province.

There are, besides, in the towns and more populous country districts, congregations, with many chapels, of Baptists, Independents, United Methodists, and of other religious bodies. The Jews have a synagogue in Christchurch. During 1873 a church was erected in the capital for the use of those emigrants from Germany or Scandinavia, who belong to Protestant denominations.

The affairs of the Church of England, which has large landed property, are managed by the Capitular Body, a Diocesan Synod, and a body of Trustees; and there is also a Commission specially appointed to supervise the work on the cathedral. The Catholics, Wesleyans, and Presbyterians conduct their affairs in the manner usual in each case.

There are branches of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge connected with the Church of England, and the Bible Society, of which persons of many denominations are members.

#### EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

The Province of Canterbury has, especially of late years, devoted large sums of money and enacted various Ordinances for the furtherance of primary and superior education. It will be convenient to divide the subject into several branches, and then to summarize the information. The divisions will be,—1. The system adopted for primary education; 2. The provision made for increasing the teaching power; 3. The establishments and endowments provided for higher education; 4. The New Zealand University in connection with Canterbury; 5. The probable prospects and present administration of the revenues and property appropriated to the purposes of education. The present remarks will be confined to



public education; but there are, both in Christchurch and the country, many private schools, elementary and otherwise, where large numbers of children are educated.

### 1.—*Primary Education.*

The first Ordinance of the Provincial Council relating to this matter was passed in the eighth session, 1857. It was a short and simple enactment of which the most important clauses provided that certain sums of money, amounting to £2,200, should be divided between the Church of England, the Wesleyans, and the Presbyterians, and the charge and control of the schools were handed over to them. School fees were to be paid, and an Inspector of Schools was appointed.

In 1863, another short Ordinance was passed, appointing a Board of Education, under whose control the public schools of the Province were placed, and who were empowered to decide upon applications for grants of public money in aid of schools. In this Ordinance, mention is made for the first time of "Local Committees" for district schools. The first step was also then taken towards withdrawing the control of public education from the various religious bodies.

In 1864, a still further advance was made. "The Education Ordinance, 1864," provided—1. That on application from the inhabitants of any locality, the Board of Education might take steps for proclaiming such locality an educational district. This was to be done by taking a majority of the votes, for or against, at a public meeting of householders and landed proprietors. 2. That if a district were thus formed the meeting should proceed to elect a School Committee, who should take charge of educational matters within the district. 3. That the Board of Education should have power to grant to the districts, for the establishment of new schools, any sum not exceeding three-fourths of the estimated cost of the necessary buildings, the Local Committee providing the other fourth. 4. That for this last, and other school purposes, the Local Committee should have power to raise within the district a rate payable by every householder, such rate not to exceed 20s. for each house. 5. That the Board might make, to any school established under the Ordinance, an annual grant of £75, but that no alteration, except as specially provided, should be made in respect of schools established before the passing of the Ordinance; such schools, however, to be placed under the charge of Committees. 6. That schools established

in connection with any particular religious denomination should be entitled to receive special grants in aid, the control of the religious teaching in such schools being left to such denomination. Religious instruction in the district schools was to be under the control of the Local Committee. No special grant made as above provided was to exceed £2 for every child in average attendance. 7. Provision was made for the inspection of all public schools. 8. Three schools, namely, Christ's College Grammar School and the High School (both in Christchurch), and the High School, Lyttelton, were excepted from the Ordinance, and were to receive annual grants in aid of from £200 to £300. Such are the most important provisions of this Ordinance, which, as may be seen, was a long step in advance of those which preceded it.

A short and not important Ordinance was passed in 1865, referring only to matters of detail in connection with the Local Committee.

Another short Ordinance, referring to the collection of the rates above mentioned, was passed in 1868, but was in the same year repealed.

In 1871 an Ordinance was passed consolidating and amending the law relating to education. Its principal provisions were—1. That in educational districts a rate, not exceeding 6d. in the pound on the annual value of the property in the district, might in certain cases be levied for the purpose of erecting or maintaining the school buildings. 2. The amount to be granted by the Board of Education towards erecting new schools was raised from three-fourths to five-sixths of their estimated cost, the district providing one-sixth. 3. The school fees hitherto charged in the district schools were made to cease in 1872, and instead thereof every householder residing within a radius of three miles from the school was to pay an annual sum of 20s. and a further sum of 5s. for every child between the ages of six and thirteen. Not more than 20s. was however to be paid for any number of children by any householder, so that the maximum amount to be contributed by him could not exceed £2 per annum. The provisions of the foregoing Ordinances relating to grants in aid of denominational schools and to religious instruction were embodied also in this Ordinance.

In 1872 an Ordinance was passed providing that existing clauses relating to the election of School Committees should not apply to the towns of Christchurch, Timaru, Lyttelton, or Kaiapoi, but that in those



places certain other proceedings should be taken.

In a subsequent session of 1872, the Ordinance of 1871 was repealed, and another passed, re-enacting many of its provisions, and introducing certain amendments, but not interfering in any very important way with the existing system.

In the next session, no Education Ordinance was passed, but a resolution was carried in the Council to the effect that it was desirable, in order to place the means of elementary education within the reach of as many children as possible, to include within an educational district every locality in the Province where there were at least twenty-five children between the ages of six and thirteen years. The effect of this resolution was to bring under the operation of the Ordinances the towns mentioned above. It is necessary here to go back a little, in order to show how this change affected the whole system of primary education. As before observed, the Education Ordinance, 1864, provided that special grants in aid might be made to denominational schools, and the words were added, "such schools shall not be included in any educational district." This provision remained in force, being re-enacted in the various Ordinances, until 1872; and as Christchurch, Timaru, Lyttelton, and Kaipoi were not educational districts, the denominational schools in those towns received grants in aid from the Board of Education. By the passing of the above resolution, these schools would be deprived of this assistance. No steps were, however, for some months taken by the Board of Education to carry the resolution into effect.

In 1873, an Ordinance was passed to consolidate and amend the law relating to public education in Canterbury, and this Ordinance is at present in force. The previous enactments were, to a great extent, retained, so far as related to the establishment of the Board of Education and Local Committees, and the general distribution of funds. The main alterations were—1. That the Superintendent might proclaim as an educational district any locality where it might seem necessary (thus including the towns). 2. That no provision was made in the Ordinance for any assistance to denominational schools, which were, therefore, not in future to receive any aid from the State.

From the above *résumé*, it will be seen that, starting from a system under the control of the various denominations, assisted by grants from the Treasury, the Province has at the present time arrived at

a system, of which the most important features may be stated as follows;—

All primary public education is under the control of a Board of eight members, appointed and removable by the Superintendent. The Board entertains and decides upon all questions as to the distribution of public money appropriated by the Provincial Council for establishing new and aiding existing district schools. Teachers, inspectors, and other officers are appointed by the Board. The Province is divided into districts, according as the increase of settlement renders them necessary, the number of these at present being eighty-four. As the country becomes populated, more districts are required; and the Superintendent has power, if he thinks fit, to proclaim any locality an educational district. Schools in these districts are built, as required by the Board of Education, the inhabitants providing one-sixth of the necessary cost. The householders of each district annually elect a Local Committee, who, under the Board, have control over educational matters in their district.

No fees are charged in any public school, but every householder residing within a radius of three miles from the school has to pay £1 per annum, and a further sum of 5s. for every child he has between the ages of six and thirteen. It is, however, provided that no person shall be liable to pay for his children more than £1, so that in no case does a householder pay more than £2 per annum towards the maintenance of the school, whatever may be the number of his children.

Children of parents residing more than three miles from a school may attend on payment of 5s. each per quarter.

In all schools under the Board, the system of elementary education comprises reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, history (sacred and profane), and English grammar. No child is compelled to be present at the teaching of history whose parents or guardians object thereto. Military drill is taught in the schools.

Clause 62 of the Ordinance provides that the Committee of any school may set apart either one whole day or two half-days in each week, during which ministers of religion may impart religious instruction to children belonging to their various denominations, provided that no children shall be allowed to attend such instruction except on a written request from their parents or guardians.

The salaries of the teachers are fixed according to the number of children attending the schools, but no male teacher receives

less than £130, and no female teacher less than £60 per annum.

Such are the main features of the Canterbury educational system. It will be seen that, whilst the State has decided to be in no way connected with any religious denomination, it has taken steps to place within the reach of every child in the Province the means of obtaining, at the lowest possible price, instruction in the various branches mentioned above.

It remains to be stated what are the funds appropriated by the Provincial Council towards the establishment and maintenance of schools for primary education. First, in each session votes have been taken for school buildings, salaries of teachers and officers, and other expenses of the department, rising from the vote of £2,200 in 1857, to £72,000 voted during 1873; and for the year ending 30th September, 1874, there is again an amount of over £72,000.

It is evident that votes such as these, depending upon the state of the revenue and the will of the Council, would not offer a certainty for the future to the Board of Education; and if they were to cease suddenly, the burden of building new schools and maintaining those already built would be thrown entirely on the ratepayers. But besides the annual votes of money, the Board of Education have another source of income to rely on, namely, the revenue from the lands reserved for ordinary educational purposes. From a return furnished by the Steward of Reserves, it appears that to the present time, 51,506 acres have been so reserved, and that of these, 25,961 acres have been let to tenants. The rental of these lands varies according to their quality. The remaining 25,000 acres have not been as yet rented, but are sure to be so before long.

These reserves are let by public tender, in blocks of not less than 100 acres each, applications being considered once a month.

## 2.—*The Provision made for increasing the Teaching Power.*

With so many schools urgently required in so short a time, it is evident that a necessity exists for providing efficient teachers. The Provincial Council have therefore voted, during the current year, a sum of £14,000 for the erection of a Normal School, where teachers may be properly trained. The foundation-stone of this building was laid in December, 1873, and the erection is being proceeded with. The funds necessary for its maintenance will of course have to be provided hereafter.

## 3.—*The Establishments and Endowments for Higher Education.*

For many years (in fact almost since the first settlement of the Province) there has been carried on, in connection with the Church of England, a highly useful and effective establishment for higher education, under the name of Christ's College and Grammar School, or "The College." Although, strictly speaking, an Anglican school, the college is open to and is made use of by scholars of all denominations, Catholics, Protestants, and Jews; and the quality of the teaching has been so good, that the school has attained what may be called a pre-eminent position in New Zealand. The Rev. J. C. Andrew, who was appointed in 1873 as inspector of this and kindred institutions under the New Zealand University, reported in most favourable terms of the efficiency of the Christchurch College; and the position which its students take in the examinations for scholarships (Provincial or University) affords similar testimony. Up to 1873 the college received from the Provincial Council an annual grant in aid. This has now been discontinued, as before stated, and the school depends upon its own resources, which are, however, quite sufficient to maintain its efficiency.

Coming to the higher educational establishments supported by the State, we find that at various periods the Provincial Council has made large reserves of land for these purposes. Firstly, for a "Classical School," the income at present available for which is £764 per annum. Secondly, a "School for Technical Science," in conjunction with the Museum and Library, with an income (in 1873) of £1,030. Thirdly, a "College of Agriculture," income in 1873, £1,000. Fourthly, a "School for Superior Education," income in 1873, £1,016. In 1873, the Council passed an Ordinance establishing and incorporating a Provincial College, with a large and influential Board of Governors, and in this institution those mentioned above have been merged. The Provincial College has not, of course, as yet had sufficient time to be fairly started, but the Board of Governors have taken steps to procure a competent staff of professors, and there is no doubt that in a year or two the institution will be in full working order. The area reserved for these purposes is about 350,000 acres.

The work hitherto done in the direction of superior education by the "Canterbury Collegiate Union" will be adverted to in considering the next portion of the subject.

It is not out of place to mention, in con-



nection with higher education, the Canterbury Museum, the Public Library, and the various libraries and institutes in the Province. Of the first-named, it is not too much to say that it would be creditable to any country. The collections placed in it are varied and complete, and well arranged, and cannot fail to be of great use in future years as a means of education. Moreover, lectures on scientific subjects have been delivered at the Museum, and now that it is incorporated with the Canterbury College, its educational usefulness will be very largely increased.

A Mechanics' Institute and Library has been in existence in Christchurch for some years, but, owing to various causes, has not been so generally useful as might have been desired. During the present year, however, this institution has been taken over by the Provincial Government as the nucleus of a public library, and a sum of £5,000 has been devoted to the purchase of a first instalment of books, &c. It may be hoped that Canterbury may hereafter possess a public library, if not as large, at least as useful as those of Melbourne and Boston.

Libraries, book clubs, and institutes are to be found in almost every district in the Province. Every town and almost each village has one, and a vote of £5,000 passed by the Provincial Council, in 1873, for distribution amongst such institutions, has greatly stimulated their increase.

The Board of Education set apart each year a sum of money for a number of scholarships. There are at present twenty of these, of the value of £40 each, tenable for two years, and open to all scholars in the Province, whether from the district schools under the Education Ordinance, or schools such as the college, or under private tuition. With the increasing population, and the spread of educational institutions, the number of these scholarships may probably be expected to be increased.

#### 4.—*The New Zealand University.*

The University of New Zealand is of course a colonial institution, not confined to any particular Province. It was established under an Act of the General Assembly in 1870, and application has been made to the Imperial Government for a charter to it. For various reasons, this has not yet been obtained, but it will doubtless not be long delayed. In the meantime, the University has commenced its career, and may be considered to be fully established as far as this country is concerned. Its work in the various Provinces is carried on by the affiliation to it of the higher educational bodies.

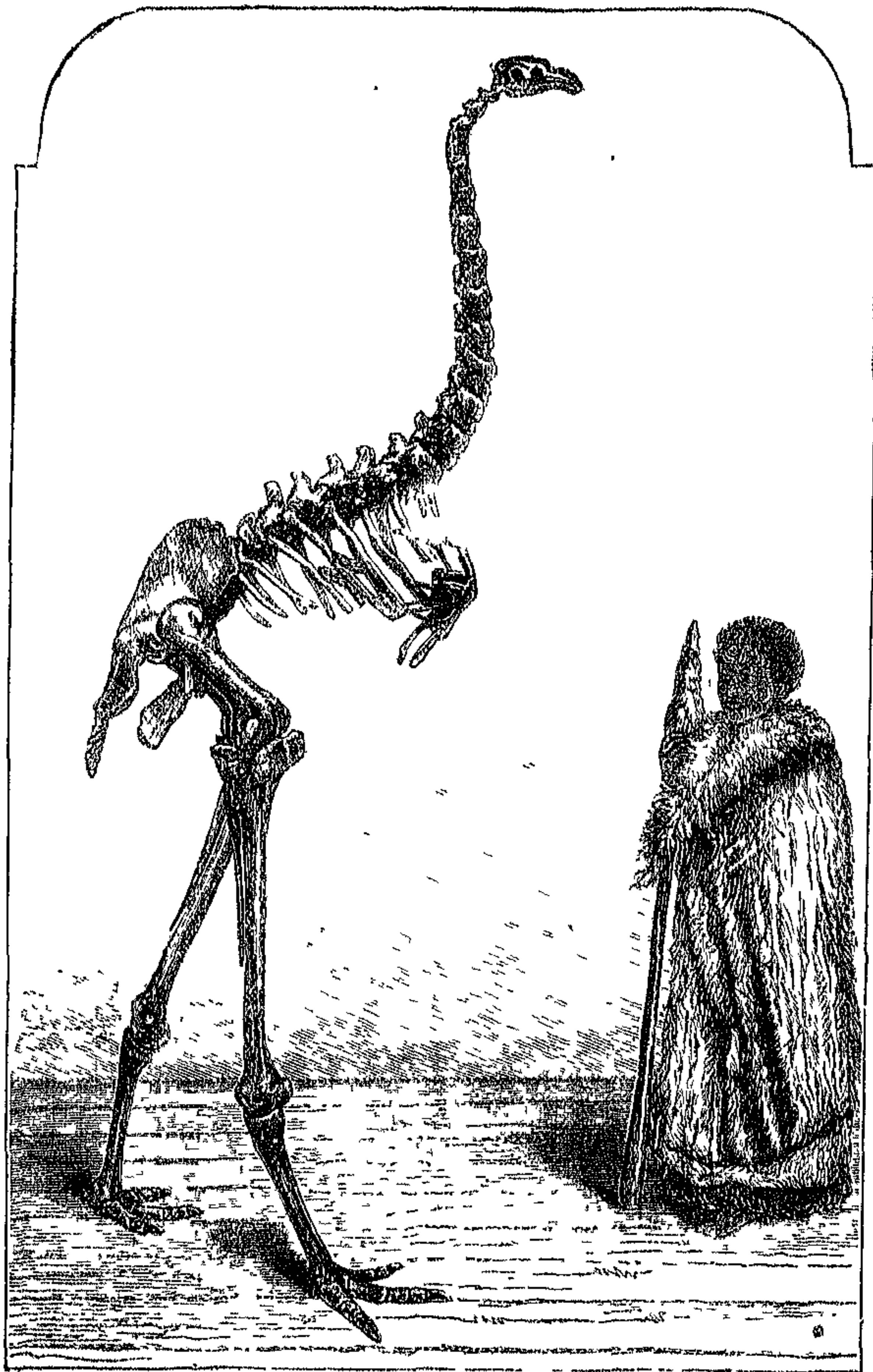
In Canterbury, the body so affiliated has been called the "Collegiate Union," and was formed by an amalgamation for this purpose of the Christchurch College and the Museum. At present, the Collegiate Union is in process of being brought under the new Provincial College, which will become the institution affiliated to the New Zealand University. Hitherto, the Union has worked by means of lectures, open to the public, which have been delivered by various gentlemen, on classics, mathematics, modern languages, history, natural science, English literature, and jurisprudence. The Governors of the Provincial College propose to provide a regular staff of professors in the following branches:—Classics, mathematics, history, English literature, modern languages, natural philosophy, biology, chemistry, mental philosophy, political economy, and jurisprudence. Although necessarily a work of time, it is hoped that few years will pass before instruction can be efficiently given in these subjects.

The University does not, however, confine itself entirely to working through the affiliated institution. It grants degrees in the same manner as other universities, and, moreover, from the funds at its disposal, establishes scholarships, of which the number and value depend, as yet, upon the revenue available. This is not the place to enter fully on the university work, but enough has been said to show what benefit the Province of Canterbury derives from it.

#### 5.—*The Administration and Appropriation of Revenue devoted by the Province to Education.*

The necessary information on this head may be gathered from the foregoing remarks. Briefly, the funds available in Canterbury for education are derived, firstly, from annual votes of the Provincial Council; secondly, from areas of land set apart as reserves and endowments; thirdly, from rates and contributions from the people. The first amounts are expended, for primary education, by the Board appointed under the Ordinance as above stated; the second are administered by a "Steward of Reserves," who has power to let the lands to tenants on certain conditions; the third are paid over to the Board and dealt with by them, as are the first. It is evident that the first, or the annual votes of the Council, are dependent on the state of the Provincial revenue, and may therefore be expected to be not always so large as they have been of late years. The second and third sources of revenue, depending on the increase of population, which is a matter of certainty, and the





SKELTON OF THE LARGEST MOA  
FROM A SPECIMEN IN THE CAMBRIDGE MUSEUM.

general prosperity of the country, which is, to all appearance, probably also increasing, may fairly be expected to grow larger every year.

Summarizing as briefly as possible, it may be stated that, as regards primary education, the system in force in Canterbury is secular or undenominational, in which the State, refusing to recognize any responsibility for giving more than the rudiments of material and commercial instruction, has placed the means of obtaining such instruction within the reach of the poorest inhabitant. The multiplication of school districts, the abolition of school fees, and the provision that no person shall pay more than £2 per annum for having his children taught, whilst all have to pay something whether they have children or not, have rendered it easy for any one to insure for his family the benefit of instruction in at least those subjects enumerated in the Education Ordinance. As regards higher education, the Provincial authorities have been evidently eager to supply ample facilities; and, with the various district schools, the colleges, museum, and lecture-halls, with their attendant scholarships and other incentives to progress, there seems to be in Canterbury almost every provision made befitting so young a country for instruction for the young.

#### HOSPITALS AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

Exclusive of several private hospitals maintained by various medical men, there are in Canterbury two hospitals, one at Christchurch and one at Timaru, with a casual ward in Lyttelton for cases of accident in the harbour, on board ship, &c. The Christchurch Hospital is situated on the banks of the Avon, in a healthy position, and surrounded by tastefully laid-out grounds. The annual vote of the Council for its maintenance amounts to a little under £5,000 at present. The hospital has now accommodation for about 130 patients, and a further increase is contemplated, which will admit about 70 more. In 1873, about 1,300 out-patients were also treated. New and extensive fever wards have recently been built, containing excellent accommodation, and capable of being quite isolated from the rest of the building. The staff of the hospital consists of one resident house-surgeon, two visiting surgeons, two visiting physicians, one ophthalmic surgeon, and four consulting surgeons and physicians. According to the regulations, patients are supposed to pay towards their maintenance £1 per week for the first six weeks, and

10s. per week afterwards, whilst in the hospital; but, practically, the institution is kept as much as possible for those who cannot afford to pay for medical advice, and who are admitted gratis.

The hospital at Timaru is a similar institution, of a smaller class, maintained by the Government at a present annual cost of about £1,200.

#### *The Orphanage.*

This is established in Lyttelton, on a site overlooking the harbour. It is capable of accommodating about 120 children, and is managed, at a present annual cost of about £2,500, by a master and matron, with a staff of nurses. It is a purely public institution, and is very satisfactorily conducted. The children, as soon as they are old enough, are apprenticed to various trades, or sent out to situations as domestic servants, &c. There were, about the close of 1873, 94 children in the Orphanage.

#### *The Lunatic Asylum.*

This is situated on a piece of land containing about 50 acres, three miles from Christchurch. It will accommodate about 160 patients. Large additions have lately been made to it, and the male and female wards are now entirely distinct and separate. There is also a separate establishment in the same grounds for the reception of confirmed drunkards, who are sent for various periods to the lunatic asylum by the Magistrates. The institution is entirely a public one, but if the relatives of patients can afford it, they have to pay a small sum per week for their maintenance. The annual cost to the Province is about £8,500.

The system adopted in the asylum is, according to modern practice, one of kindness and moderate control. The buildings are lofty and well ventilated, the food good and plentiful, and every care is taken to provide, where possible, recreation and amusement for the patients. Christchurch, which possesses a theatre and several halls for various entertainments, is hardly ever without the presence of some professional performers, and many of these, besides the local amateurs, take opportunities of giving entertainments to the patients at the asylum.

#### *Charitable Aid.*

Besides the above local institutions, the Provincial Government of Canterbury provides liberally for the maintenance of those who, from accidents, or old age, or other causes, are unable to support themselves.

The Charitable Aid Department, which in 1873 cost £4,500, had recently under its charge about ninety persons, mostly widows and children, or women deserted by their husbands. These are not collected in any separate establishment, but are assisted by the Government according as their necessities require. A number of men who have, from various causes, so far lost the use of their limbs as to be incapable of doing any but light work, are employed under this department in work in the public domains, planting on the railway lines, &c., where the labour is easy and does not require great despatch.

The above are the chief purely charitable institutions maintained at the public expense in Canterbury. One more should, however, be here spoken of, though not strictly in the same category. It is the reformatory or industrial school. Consequent on the rapid increase of the population of the Province, especially in the towns, it became necessary to establish some institution for reclaiming from evil the boys and girls whose parents neglected to look after them. It was therefore decided, in 1872, to build, on a piece of land about eighteen miles from Christchurch, a large industrial school, and this is now in operation. It is intended, when the school is fairly in working order, that the inmates shall be taught various trades and occupations, for which the building itself, and the large piece of land surrounding it, will be made available.

A few words should be said of private charitable institutions. There are many of these in connection with the various religious denominations, such as the Benevolent Aid Society, the House of Refuge for Females, the Society of St. Vincent of Paul, &c. There are likewise branches of different benefit societies—Masons, Odd-fellows, Foresters, and the like.

Altogether, it may be said that Canterbury is well provided with charitable institutions of various kinds, both public and private; whilst, on the other hand, it must be remembered that there is not the same need for them here as in older countries; for the low price of the necessaries of life, the high wages, and general prosperity of the people, render it much more easy, especially to persons of the working classes, to gain a subsistence, and to attain to a certain amount of luxurious living.

#### COST OF COTTAGES AND OTHER RESIDENCES.

##### *Prices of Building for Cottages.*

Cottages, two-roomed, 24 ft. ×  
12 ft. (in town)..... £45

Cottages, two-roomed, 24 ft. ×  
12 ft. (in country)..... £50

Ruling rates of rent for dwelling-houses in town :—

Four-roomed cottages, from 10s. to 12s. per week.

Six-roomed cottages, from 15s. to 20s. per week, according to position, &c.

Family houses, from £70 to £120 per annum, according to position, &c.

#### EMIGRATION REGULATIONS—HINTS FOR EMIGRANTS.

The system of immigration adopted by the Colony of New Zealand is, practically, a free one.

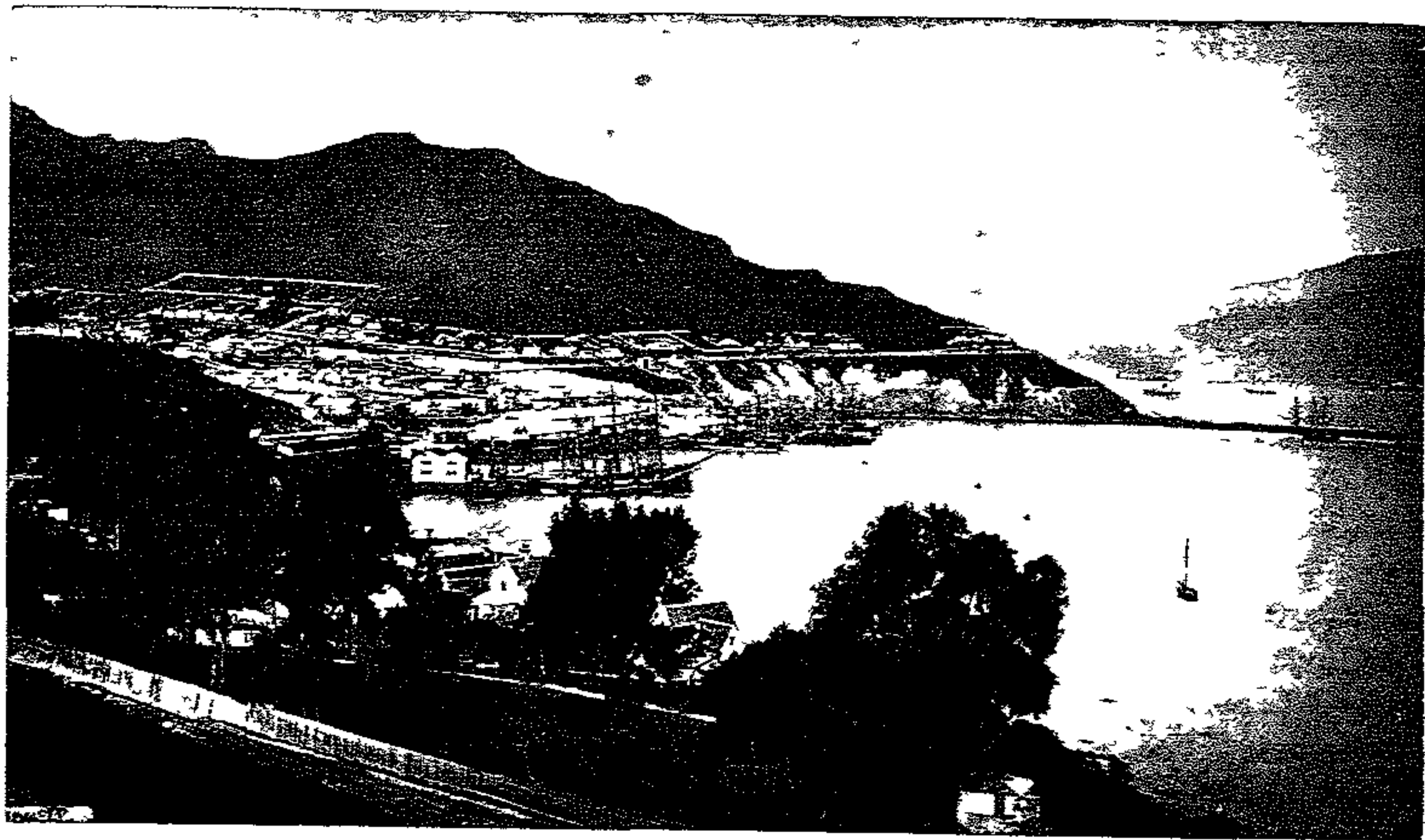
The ships employed to bring out immigrants are very carefully chosen and thoroughly inspected before starting. They are all under the provisions of the Passenger Act. There is always a doctor on board, and a matron in charge of the single women, and these, with the captain, on arrival in port, receive, according to their efficiency and good conduct, gratuities from the Government. The 'tween-decks of all the ships are divided into three compartments, kept carefully distinct and separate, for single men, married couples, and single women. A liberal scale of rations has been adopted, under which each immigrant receives beef, pork, preserved meat, vegetables, tea, coffee, &c., and bread. Children under twelve years of age are specially provided for.

Immediately after the sailing of an immigrant ship from England, the Agent-General for New Zealand forwards to the Colonial Government, by overland mail, a list containing the names and occupations of all on board. A summary of this list is published in the local papers, with an advertisement stating that applications for the classes of labour therein specified will be received by the Immigration Department. Each immigrant ship is, on arrival, immediately visited by the Health Officer and the Immigration Commissioners. If the state of health is satisfactory, the Commissioners go on board and inspect all the arrangements. The immigrants are mustered, and inquiries made as to comfort, discipline, and general conduct of all on board.

The immigrants are asked if they have any complaints to make, either of the quality or quantity of the provisions and water supplied to them, and generally if they have been comfortable and satisfied on the voyage.

All the compartments of the ship, the





surgery, hospitals, lavatories, closets, &c., are inspected, and any defects noted. In case of complaints or bad conduct on the part either of the officers in charge or of the immigrants, a strict inquiry is instituted before the report of the Commissioners is sent in.

As soon as the inspection is over, the immigrants are landed with their luggage and proceed by special train to the depôt at Addington, a distance of about eight miles, where they are comfortably lodged in large and well-ventilated apartments, and treated with the greatest care by the master and matron.

Two days are allowed for washing and mending clothes, &c., but those immigrants who are going to relations or friends, may leave immediately their friends come for them. On the third day the engagements take place.

Careful provision is made for the protection of single women, both on the voyage and after arrival, and no person is admitted into the engagement-room who is not personally known to the officers of the department to be of good character, unless he brings a certificate to that effect from some respectable householder.

Each engagement is superintended by an officer of the department, and duly entered in books kept for that purpose. The current rates of wages are posted in each of the compartments of the depôt. Generally, every care is taken that the immigrant shall be thoroughly well informed of the state of the labour market, so that he shall not be imposed on by persons endeavouring to engage servants at rates lower than those current.

Amongst the questions put to immigrants on arrival is the following:—"Have you any remarks to make with regard to the promotion of emigration at home?" The following are amongst the answers lately given, and are fair average specimens:—*J. M.*, married, from Jersey, says: "There is no difficulty in the way of any Jersey people obtaining a passage if they are willing to come. Dr. Garriok (the local agent) makes everything easy. The dread of the voyage stops a great many from coming. I shall write describing our treatment on the voyage; it was much better than I expected." *W. W.*, married, says, "Let emigrants write home describing the country truthfully, and also a description of their treatment on board ship, and after arrival in New Zealand." *B. A.*, single man, says, "Work is so bad in London, that many hundreds would come out if they were not afraid of the long

voyage. Letters home from emigrants would help to do away with that feeling." *M. A. H.*, single woman, says, "Many single women that I know are afraid of the voyage, and the treatment they will receive upon arrival. If they could be informed how comfortable we were on board, and in the depôt here, many would come out."

It will be seen from the foregoing remarks that, in point of fact, the immigrant to Canterbury has, in reality, no trouble, and nothing special to do on his arrival. From the time when he reaches the depôt in England, whether in London, Plymouth, or elsewhere, everything is done for him by the Government. The regulations regarding his comfort on board ship are strictly carried out, and the vessels themselves are carefully selected. The provisions supplied are good and plentiful, and on his arrival here, if he has friends to go to, he is at liberty to join them as soon as he likes. If not he is comfortably lodged and fed, and every possible facility is placed in his way for obtaining a good situation.

#### *Regulations to be observed in the Hiring of Immigrants.*

1. Applications for married couples, single men, and single women, are received at the Immigration Office for some weeks previous to the arrival of an immigrant ship.

2. Upon the engagement day, due notice of which is given by advertisement, employers attend at the barracks, and select according to priority of application.

3. It is the duty of the Barrack Master to point out to persons applying for married couples or single men, those whom he has ascertained to be suitable for the situations, and generally to assist employers and immigrants in making the necessary arrangements for engagement.

4. It is the duty of the Barrack Matron to assist persons desirous of engaging female servants, by pointing out those suitable for the situations, and generally to assist employers and immigrants in making the necessary arrangements.

5. A list of the class of immigrants available for hire, and the current rate of wages, will be posted in all the compartments of the barracks.

6. Any employers unknown to the Immigration Officer may be requested to bring an introduction from a respectable householder.

7. All agreements are made in writing by employer and servant, and witnessed by Immigration Officer. The original agree-

ment is kept as a record, a copy being given to the person employed.

8. Any immigrant who refuses a reasonable offer of service, will be required to leave at once. The fact of such refusal must be reported immediately to the Immigration Officer, and by him to the Government.

9. Immigrants who have accepted service must leave the barracks without delay, and cannot be re-admitted.

*Regulations to be observed by Immigrants in Barracks.*

1. Accommodation in the barracks will be afforded to immigrants newly arrived for one week after landing, and no longer, without special permission from the Immigration Officer.

2. No person is allowed to enter the barracks except by an order from the Immigration Officer.

3. All immigrants accommodated in the barracks must be in their rooms by 9 o'clock p.m., and must rise at 6 o'clock from the 1st September to the 31st March inclusive, and at 7 a.m. from the 1st April to the 31st August. The berths and floors must be swept and cleaned out before 8 o'clock a.m.

4. Immigrants will be expected to air their bedding daily, and observe strict cleanliness at all times.

5. All slops must be carried to the places appointed for that purpose.

6. No immigrant must write upon, or in any way damage any of the buildings.

7. No fire or light shall be kept burning in any room in the barracks after 9 p.m., except under the direction of the Immigration Officer.

8. No smoking will be allowed at any time in any of the rooms of the barracks.

9. No immigrant will be allowed to remain in the barracks after obtaining employment, except with the permission of the Immigration Officer.

10. Any immigrant leaving the barracks before being engaged, unless authorized by the Immigration Officer, will not be re-admitted.

11. Any person who shall use obscene language, become intoxicated, or violate any of the above rules, will be immediately expelled from the barracks.

12. The Immigration Officer may require adult immigrants to do four hours' work daily during their stay in the barracks.

**LAW AND POLICE.**

The laws of Canterbury are like those of the other Provinces of New Zealand, of

a threefold character. Firstly, there are the various English laws applicable to the Colony; secondly, the Acts of the General Assembly of New Zealand; thirdly, the various Ordinances passed by the Provincial Council, which are, of course, valid only within the boundaries of the Province. These laws are administered, firstly, by the Supreme Court, the Judge of which holds his office under the Colonial Government, although the necessary buildings and other expenses are borne by the Province; secondly, by Resident Magistrates, of whom there are, in the Province, five, holding their Courts at Christchurch (with a sub-district at Leeston), Timaru, Lyttelton, Kaiapoi (with sub-districts at Oxford, Rangiora, and Leithfield), and Akaroa (these officers are also under the Colonial Government); thirdly, by Justices of the Peace, of whom, in the various parts of the Province, there are at present 120. These gentlemen receive no salaries. Besides, the Province is divided into districts for the purpose of Coroners' inquests.

The Police Department is under the control of the Provincial authorities. The force, an exceedingly efficient one, is at present composed of a total, including officers, of 65 men, or about one to every 800 of the population. The amount of crime in Canterbury is not great: for instance, it has always been a subject of remark that a crowd here is invariably orderly. The Police force, however, is highly organized and in excellent order, and as they are distributed in as many places as possible, they contribute very largely to the safety and peaceable condition of the Province.

Gaols have been constructed and are maintained by the Provincial Government in Lyttelton (for long service prisoners), in Timaru, in Christchurch, and at Addington (for female prisoners). In Lyttelton Gaol, the convicts are employed in various works. Hitherto, they have been occupied in constructing the breakwater in the harbour, of masses of rock from the adjacent cliff; now, however, this and other extensive harbour works, to a proposed cost of £170,000, are being constructed by contractors, in the ordinary way, and other employment has to be found for the prisoners.

**COMMERCIAL COMPANIES AND ASSOCIATIONS.**

The usual facilities for transacting business are of course not wanting in Canterbury. There are five banks in the Province—the Bank of New Zealand, the Bank of Australasia, the Union Bank of Australia, the



Bank of New South Wales, and the National Bank of New Zealand (Limited). These, besides their head offices in Christchurch, have branch establishments and agencies in various country towns, such as Lyttelton, Kaiapoi, Timaru, Ashburton, Rangiora, &c.

The New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency Company, and the Trust and Agency Company of Australasia, have also offices in Christchurch and other towns.

Several insurance companies are likewise established here, such as the London and Liverpool and Globe, the Royal, the London and Lancashire, and others, of English origin, and the South British, National and Standard Companies, started in the Colony.

Christchurch, Timaru, Kaiapoi, Lyttelton, and Rangiora possess Fire Brigades, of which the organization and efficiency are highly spoken of.

There are several Building and Investment Societies, which render very valuable assistance to those who are desirous of acquiring a comfortable home, but have not all the necessary capital. Thus, for instance, a person who desires to receive assistance towards building, according to the rules of one of these Societies, executes a mortgage of the property to the Society, and receives from it advances periodically during the continuance of the work. Those advances can be repaid by monthly, quarterly, or half-yearly instalments. For instance, if £50 is borrowed, both principal and interest can be repaid in fourteen years by a monthly payment of 10s. 4d., or by a quarterly payment of £1. 11s. 3d., or by a half-yearly payment of £3. 3s. 2d.; or it can be repaid in six years by a monthly payment of 17s. 11d., a quarterly payment of £2. 14s. 2d., or a half-yearly payment of £6. 9s. 6d. The borrower can, if he wishes, at any time redeem the loan by giving three months' notice, and paying the balance of the principal then actually due, without further payment. The fees and charges are exceedingly moderate. These Societies are much used in Canterbury, and are found to be of great assistance: almost every one is enabled to build himself a comfortable home, and the towns are full of cottages belonging to working men, many of which are erected with the help of one of the Building Societies.

Associations such as the Meat Export Companies, the Flax Association, Chamber of Commerce, and the like, require a passing mention, especially the first, which, thanks to the opening of a steady trade with Europe in preserved meats, have done a great deal

towards establishing in this country a greater certainty in the values of stock than did exist, and have therefore very largely benefited the agricultural portion of the community.

#### MISCELLANEOUS SOCIETIES, &c.

There are at present three Agricultural and Pastoral Associations in the Province of which one holds its annual show of cattle, sheep, implements, and produce, at Christchurch, on November 9th in each year with a ram fair and grain show in the autumn. A second is established at Timaru, and a third at Leeston, and both of these also hold annual shows. The influence of these societies, and the impetus given by them to stock-breeding, have largely contributed to raise Canterbury to a high rank as a country for pure stock of all classes. There is now hardly a ship coming to Lyttelton from England which does not bring out valuable sheep or cattle, selected carefully from the best herds and flocks in the old country.

There has been an Acclimatization Society in existence in Canterbury for some years past, and its labours have been, as a rule, very successful and highly useful. Its funds are obtained by subscription, but the Provincial Council has, in most years, added a liberal grant from the Treasury. The Society import every year numbers of birds from England, and, in consequence, in many parts of the Province are found numbers of thrushes, blackbirds, yellow-hammers, linnets, skylarks, goldfinches, bullfinches, and other birds of the like class. A year ago, rooks and starlings were introduced, and they are now rapidly increasing. Excepting in the forests, the smaller native birds are not abundant in Canterbury, and until the Society introduced those from England hardly any were to be seen. Now, however, these latter are spreading so fast that in a few years, it is hoped, they will be found everywhere; and as the Society turns its attention more particularly to the introduction of those birds which are useful for destroying grubs, flies, and caterpillars, they cannot fail to do a great deal of good. But besides these, the Society (and, it may be mentioned, many private individuals) have most successfully introduced game and fish of various kinds. Of the first, pheasants, partridges, and hares are thoroughly acclimatized and fast spreading over the country. In some parts of the Province pheasants may be seen in almost every field; partridges are rapidly increasing, chiefly in the northern district; hares are apparently doing well and breeding. Of fish, the

Society have introduced the trout, some thousands of which have been turned out in the various rivers, and in 1873 they successfully accomplished the feat of bringing young salmon from England. These last are as yet too young to turn out; but it is hoped that, now they are here, they will take kindly to their new home, and, when sent to the sea, increase and multiply. In the way of native game, New Zealand is not so well supplied as some other countries. The principal game is wild ducks (of which there are several species), wild pigeons, parrots, and the swamp hen, a large and beautiful bird, common in the marshes and reedy creeks. It may also be mentioned that the red deer, which have at various times been introduced into the Colony, and turned out in the mountains, appear to be still alive and probably increasing, although, owing to their habits and the difficult nature of the country, they are not often seen. It is, on the whole, probable that Canterbury, originally so poorly provided with varieties of game, will in a few years be amply supplied in this respect.

Canterbury colonists have always given great attention to the planting of trees and the production of flowers and fruits. There is a Horticultural Society in Christchurch, holding three or four shows every year; and as the climate is, as a rule, admirably adapted for gardening, and trees grow rapidly and well, the Province is fast changing its appearance from that of an open, bare plain to a well-wooded and ornamental country.

A passing reference may be made to the public amusements of the people of Canterbury. There is a Jockey Club in Christchurch, which holds its chief race meeting during three days in November, with an autumn meeting at some time about April; and there are few centres of population in the country districts which do not manage also to hold annual races. There are boat-clubbing at Christchurch, Lyttelton, and Kaiapoi (annual regattas, besides other races, being held at these places), and cricket clubs in the chief town and many country places. There is a theatre in Christchurch, and other halls for concerts and entertainments; and, in fact, there are made in Canterbury much the same endeavours to obtain rational amusements as there are elsewhere, the quality depending, of course, on the means available for the purpose.

#### SUMMARY.

The foregoing pages are believed to contain a plain, impartial description of the Province of Canterbury. It may be ga-

thered from them that whilst there may be, in certain directions, defects which may not exist in older countries, yet, though no more likely than any other place to be perfect, Canterbury certainly offers advantages to various classes of settlers, some of which may be briefly stated as follows:—

First, the small farmer, or the gentleman with small capital, will find it a country where he can, if he choose, select a piece of land and possess it for ever, knowing that although the times may be now and again less favourable to him than usual, every year that passes over the Colony renders the chances of permanent depression less and less. He will find his property secure, the climate, as a rule, excellent, and the cost of living low; and he will also find that, allowing for periods of temporary inconvenience, which must necessarily come here as they come elsewhere, in the long run he, in common with his neighbours, is steadily and surely rising to prosperity.

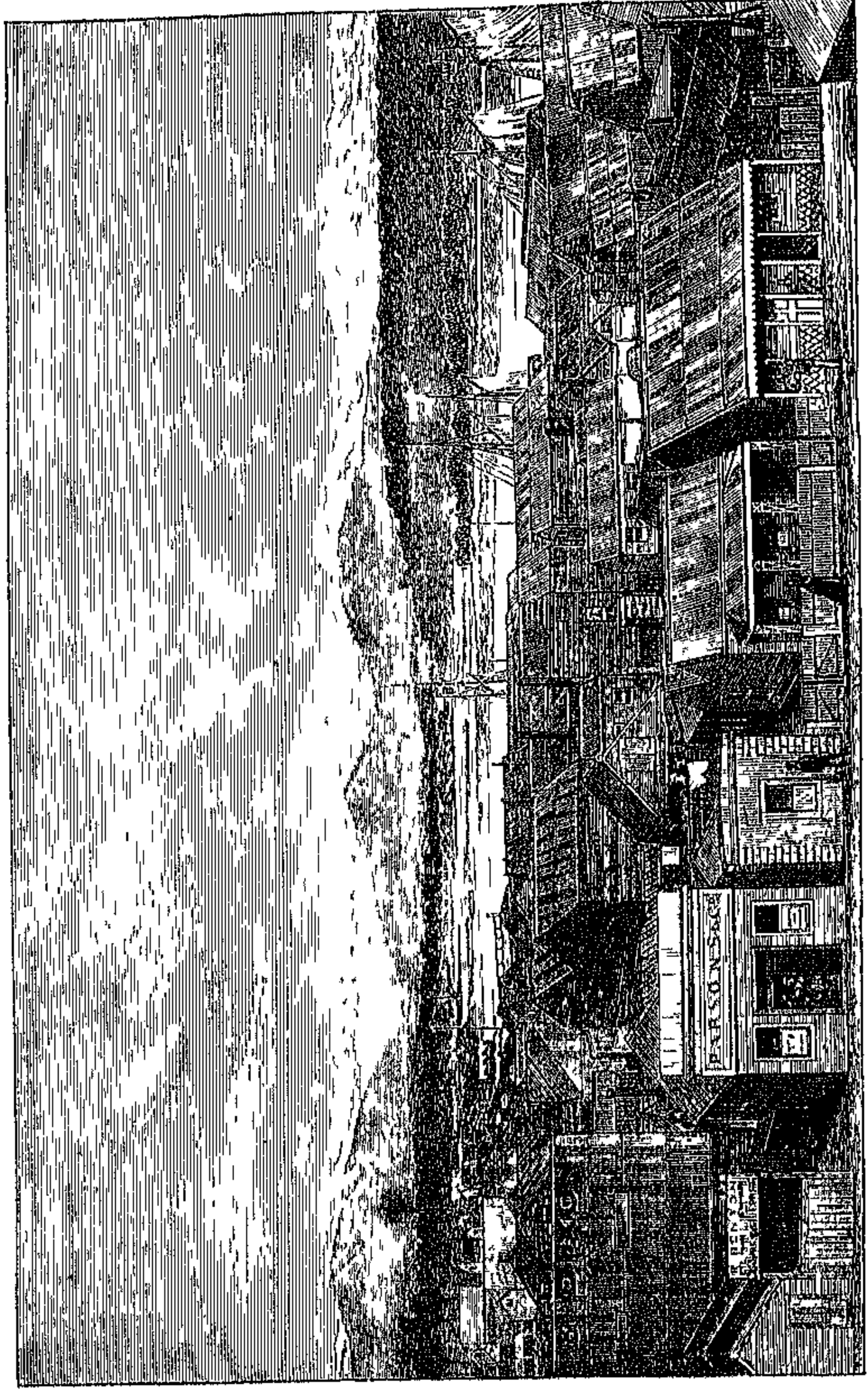
To the immigrant of what is called the working class, whether mechanic or ordinary labourer, Canterbury offers a certainty of abundant employment at good wages, with the accompanying advantage of having within reach, at the most moderate prices, not only the necessaries, but many of the luxuries of life.

Domestic servants, seamstresses, and other female workers, will find plenty of employment, and in a short time discover the difference between a life of penurious drudgery at home and one of fairly paid work here.

To all classes the Province offers easy means of procuring for their children, at the lowest possible rates, a sound elementary education, with opportunities of extension to the highest branches.

And, as regards social condition, it may be said that all are more free here than at home. There is less interference of one with another, and no excessive subservience of class to class. Moreover, the popular ideal of "colonial" life will not be found. The old days, when it was considered right to model behaviour partly on an Australian partly on an American pattern—the days of the blue shirt, the cabbage-tree hat, and the stock-whip—the days of almost unlimited drinking and swaggering—have long ago passed away. People in Canterbury conduct themselves in the same manner as people do at home, the one great difference being, that no rowdyism is tolerated, and that, in the streets or the fields, or in the crowds at the various social gatherings, no rags, or beggars, or evidences of misery and destitution, are to be met with.





HOKIKA RIVER, FROM THE TOWN OF HOKIKA.



## THE PROVINCE OF WESTLAND.

IN 1861 the whole of the land comprising the Province of Westland was purchased by the Government from the original inhabitants. There were not more than thirty of them in the Province at that time (at the last census there were sixty-eight Maoris in the Province). The Natives of this Province had formerly been subject to frequent attacks from the Natives of the North Island, who made predatory excursions to the Middle Island in search of greenstone, for which this Province is noted. Twenty-five years previous to the Government purchasing the land of the Province, two Native commanders, Niho and Takerei, after having served under Te Rauparaha in attacking the Native settlements on the East Coast of this Island, proceeded with their followers down the West Coast as far as the Hokitika River, killing and taking prisoners nearly all the existing inhabitants. Niho and Takerei settled at the mouth of the river Grey, and parties of their followers formed detached settlements on the coast north of the Grey, and as far south as Bruce Bay. The Natives have no claims to any lands in the Province, except to a few reserves that have been made for their use, and to secure to them a right to any greenstone that may exist in those reserves. In 1864 gold was discovered in the Province, at the Hohouu River, and a rush of miners from the other Provinces then set in to the Greenstone. Discoveries of gold were soon made at the Totara, Waimea, Saltwater, Kanieri, Grey, and Okarita districts.

The Province of Westland extends from the Province of Nelson on the north to the Province of Otago on the south, and from the Province of Canterbury on the east to the sea coast on the west; its boundaries being, on the north the river Grey, on the south the river Awarua (flowing into Big Bay), and on the east the watershed of the Southern Alps. Its divisions are, the Municipalities of Hokitika and Greymouth, and the Road Board districts of Paroa, Arahura, Kanieri, Totara, and Okarita.

The Municipality of Hokitika includes the town of Hokitika, situate on the north bank of the river of that name, and one square mile of land on the south bank of the river opposite the town. Hokitika is the seat of local government, and is the principal town in the Province. It has a large trade

with the Australian colonies, and exports (besides gold) great quantities of timber.

The Municipality of Greymouth includes the town of Greymouth and some adjoining land. Its chief export (besides gold) is coal. A railway is being constructed to connect the town with the coal mines, situate about seven miles up the river.

The Paroa district extends from the river Grey to the Teremakau River. Its chief towns are Mairdoun and Greenstone; the others being Paroa, Olifton, Maori Creek, and Oima. In this district, the whole line of beach, and the terraces some little distance inland, have been or are being worked by gold miners; and in most of the tributaries of the Grey River and New River, gold mining is carried on. At the Greenstone township, miners, with the aid of water power, supplied to them by the Hohouu race, are washing away the sides of hills and high terraces. There has been a large quantity of land purchased from the Government in the Paroa district. All the sections in the town of Greymouth have been sold, and a great deal of the land along the south bank of the river Grey, and along the roads that are in course of construction in the district, has been taken up. Two stations, each containing 2,500 acres, have been purchased in the neighbourhood of Lake Brunner. Along the rivers and lakes in this locality, there is plenty of agricultural land available for settlement.

The Arahura district lies between the Arahura and Teremakau rivers. It contains the important mining district of the Waimea, with its towns of Goldsborough and Stafford. The Waimea, one of the oldest diggings in the Province, still supports a large mining population; and when the Waimea water-race is constructed, employment will be furnished for a much larger population, as nearly the whole of the terraces and sidlings are gold-bearing. Water to command the ground at a high level is only wanted to make this district flourish.

The Kanieri district includes the land between the Arahura and Hokitika rivers and the land on the south bank of the Hokitika River, as far as Lake Mahinapua. Besides the Kanieri, Kokatahi, and Mahinapua townships, this district contains the mining centres of Blue Spur, Big Paddock, Woodstock, and Eight-

Mile, and the farming district of the Kokatahi Valley. Gold mining, timber-cutting, and farming are the chief industries of this district. A company is now engaged bringing in water from Lake Kanieri to the mines. The works connected with this undertaking will be finished about September, 1874. In several cuttings along this line of race gold has been found, and the race, when finished, will help materially to increase the yield of gold in the district. The whole of the timber exported from the port of Hokitika is cut in the Kanieri district. There are large areas of agricultural land, not sold, in the Kokatahi Valley, and between it and the Hokitika River.

The Totara district extends from the Kanieri district to the Mikonui River, and includes the town of Ross, and the mining districts of Donoghue's, Donnelly's Creek, and Redman's; the tributaries of the Totara and Mikonui rivers being all auriferous. The mines near Ross were worked chiefly by steam power: gold has been found in them in six different layers, in depths from 50 ft. to 450 ft. Most of these mines are at present flooded out, and perhaps will remain so till capital is introduced into the district to work the mines on an extensive system. A large race (surveys and plans of which have been prepared) to carry water from the Mikonui River, to near Ross, is much needed, and would prove reproductive, as the deep claims can be worked with water-power far less expensively than with steam. The main industry of this district is gold mining, which is extensively carried on in the terraces.

The Okarita district comprises all that part of the Province between the river Mikonui and the southern boundary of the Province. Gold mining is the only occupation followed in this district. There are scarcely any mines being worked inland, except up one or two of the rivers; the miners rest satisfied with obtaining gold easily in the beach workings. In many of the beaches of this district (as well as in other parts of the Province), after bad weather and a heavy sea, the sand on the sea-beach is found impregnated with gold, and, after the sand has been scraped off the beach and the gold extracted, there is likely to be, after the next heavy sea, a similar quantity of gold found in the beach sand in the same localities. The district has had but little attention paid to it, either by the miners or settlers. It has two splendid harbours—Bruce Bay and Jackson's Bay; and rivers with good entrances and depth of water. It has easy access to the Province of Otago and the East Coast, by the saddle

at the head of the Haast River, and it possesses large tracts of auriferous land, fine agricultural land, and splendid grazing country and timber. A few months since gold was found near the Haast: about 200 miners went there, but the rush taking place during a continuance of wet weather, many of the miners returned. Those who remain there appear to be getting payable gold, and no doubt it will not be long before an extensive gold-field will be discovered, and attention be called to the place. A great deal of land in this district, principally along the river banks, is taken up for pasturage purposes as cattle runs. There are blocks of land in this district laid off for special settlements, to enable settlers to obtain land on easy terms.

Of the total area of Westland (4,442 square miles) the mountain ranges and forest lands occupy 2,843,141 acres, the rivers and lakes 29,759 acres, and open country 172,800 acres; making in all, 3,045,700 acres. The Governor may, on the recommendation of the Provincial Council and Land Board, authorize the sale of blocks of land, not less in area than 160 acres, at 10s. per acre; or blocks of 20 acres and upwards may be purchased of the Land Board at £1 per acre. In the immediate vicinity of townships or other centres of population, land in blocks from 1 to 10 acres in extent may be purchased at auction, at an upset price of £2 per acre. The price of land in the towns of Hokitika, Greymouth, and Okarita is £48 per acre; and in the towns of Marsden, Greenstone, Goldsbrough, Stafford, and Kanieri, £35 per acre. No charge is made for surveying and pegging out any land purchased from the Government.

For the purpose of forming special settlements in the southern portions of the Province, three blocks in the Okarita district have been set apart; one, containing 20,000 acres, between the Mikonui and Wanganui rivers; one, containing 50,000 acres, from the Saltwater River southwards for seventeen miles, of a depth of three miles and a quarter; and one of 50,000 acres, extending from the Haast River to two miles south of the Arawata River. The land in these blocks is classed as town, suburban, and rural, and can be purchased at the price of lands in the other parts of the Province. If not sold, it may be disposed of by being leased for seven years, in the following manner:—Unsold town lands, in sections of not less than one-quarter acre, nor more than half-acre, to one person, at a yearly rental of 30s. per acre; suburban lands, in blocks of not less than 10 acres,



at 6s. per acre per year; and rural lands, in blocks of not less than 25 nor more than 250 acres, at an annual rental of 3s. per acre. If at any time of continued residence the lessee shall purchase the land held by him under a license at the upset price, the rental paid prior to the purchase shall be considered as the deposit made at the application to purchase the land, and, upon the balance being paid, the purchaser shall be entitled to a Crown grant; and if during the seven years' lease the lessee wants to leave, the Land Board can dispose of the land by auction, and whatever amount the land fetches above the rent due and expenses of sale, will be handed to the lessee as valuation for his improvements. Any lessee holding and occupying a lease as above for seven years, shall be entitled, at the payment of the seventh year's rent in advance, to a Crown grant, without further payment. All the moneys received from the sale or leasing of lands in the special settlement blocks shall be applied to defray expenses in forming settlements, making and constructing roads and public works in settlement, in endowing and maintaining schools, &c., and maintaining communication either by sea or by land with each settlement.

There is land throughout the whole of the Province abounding with timber, and easily accessible from the sea coast; and the few inland tracks lately cut show that some of the best agricultural land in the Province exists between the low-lying hills and the main range. In cutting, quite recently, the Waitahu prospecting track for a line of road, thousands of acres of open land, with 8 ft. to 10 ft. of rich black soil, were found, and would prove fit locations for extensive farms.

There is scarcely any improved land in private hands open for sale to persons of small capital. Most of the holders of improved lands have themselves made the improvements. Any one anxious to secure a homestead, with a market to dispose of his produce, will find it a not very difficult task in the Province of Westland, where the land can be easily purchased from the Government.

The chief productions of Westland are gold, timber, and coal. The value of gold is £3. 10s. per oz.; sawn timber, 8s. per hundred feet (superficial); timber in logs, 5s. per hundred feet (superficial); coal, at the pit's mouth, 10s. per ton; at Greymouth, the port of shipment, 18s. per ton; and in Hokitika, 25s. per ton. These prices of coal will be much lower when the

railway is completed from the coal mines to Greymouth.

All the rivers of Westland, and the bays in its southern parts, abound with fish. If parties of men would organize, and settle in the southern parts of the Province, they would find fish-curing a profitable occupation, more especially if they fitted out boats for whaling (as whales are frequently cast on our shores), and seal-catching. At seasons when fishing may be dull, the settlers could prospect for gold, as the whole of the coast is auriferous. There are men scattered in the southern parts of this Province who, for the last five or six years, have been gold mining, and doing nothing else. These men will not leave the districts, preferring to remain there, notwithstanding the difficulties and expense of obtaining provisions. There are blocks of land set apart for special settlements, and immigrants can easily obtain homesteads in the southern parts. Bruce Bay and Jackson's Bay, both well sheltered, are good localities for the establishment of fishing stations. The Government offer a bonus of 4s. per cwt. on all cured fish exported up to the end of 1879.

Flax is found in all parts of the Province, the moist climate of Westland being very favourable for its growth; yet nothing has been done to utilize it. On the banks of the rivers, and in the swamps, flax grows luxuriantly. Samples of the only kind dressed by the Maories, have the appearance of delicate glossed satin. Another kind, the *tai*, is remarkable for its length of fibre and great strength. The making of flax into rope and all kinds of cordage could be carried on advantageously in Westland, as its supply of flax is inexhaustible. If properly cultivated, and by stripping only the outer leaves of the flax plant twice a year, each acre of land would yield more than two tons of marketable flax.

In other parts of New Zealand, where the climate is not so favourable for the growth of flax, swamps have been drained, and, immediately after, the plants that had a stunted growth of 2 ft. commenced growing till they attained a height of 9 ft. or 10 ft.

From the unlimited supply of easily-wrought wood found here, cabinetmakers and carpenters, especially those with a knowledge of machine-made notions, such as doors, window-sashes, tubs, clothes-pegs, articles of turnery, &c., will find the Province a fit place to exercise their skill and ingenuity. Shipbuilding could be largely



and easily carried on in any of the bays or main rivers of the Province.

Sites with water frontages to any of the rivers can be easily obtained, and a supply of bark being at hand, tanneries could be cheaply worked, and would yield large profits to the owners, as the demand for leather is very great, most of the population being engaged in mining, or on roads and public works, or in the bush. If tanneries were established, boot factories would pay.

Brickmaking could be profitably carried on in the Province: there are only two brickyards, one at Greymouth and one at Hokitika. On account of the high price of bricks, there is hardly a brick house in the whole of the Province. There is an immense supply of fire-clay of first-class quality near Greymouth, from which bricks have been made that have stood the test in several furnaces much better than the English imported article.

The manufacture of potash and pearlash, essential oils, extraction of gums, and the exportation of ice might prove profitable. The manuka trees would make excellent hop-poles, lasting as long as iron, and saving the cost and trouble of dipping the poles, as is done in the hop counties of England.

The forest lands of the Province occupy more than two-thirds of its total area. The timber consists chiefly of black, red, white, and silver pines; black, red, and white birches; mairo, totara, rata, kawhaka, cedar, and manuka.

Lately there has sprung up a demand for white pine timber, and from the port of Hokitika alone, during the quarter ended 30th September, 1873, there were exported to Melbourne 1,330 logs, containing 446,430 ft., besides deals, making in all 485,000 ft. Hokitika also, during the same three months, exported to other New Zealand ports 687,300 ft. of sawn timber. The rivers in the Province are not more than four or five miles apart, so that in districts where there are no roads, the timber can be easily floated down to the coast. A license to cut timber in any part of the Province can be obtained on payment of 10s. per month, or £5 per year, and the Land Board may reserve any land for the sale by auction of the timber thereon.

Although gold mining is the chief and most alluring of the occupations followed in Westland, yet in many parts of the Province other metals and minerals have been found: amongst them, coal, principally found on the south bank of the Grey River (opposite the Brunner mine), at Lake

Kanieri, in several places in the Ross district, at the north of the Okaita lagoon, and at the Paringha River. A company is now opening up the Grey mine, and parties are similarly engaged at the Kanieri mine.

Gold-bearing quartz reefs have been found near Langdon's Ferry, Grey River, at the Taipo River, up the Hokitika River in several places, near Kanieri Lake, at Redman's in the Ross district, and in many other parts of the Province.

Lead and silver ore (galena) has lately been found at the Waitaha River, and copper at the Paringha River, and in some of the bays. From the southern parts of the Province, beyond the settled districts, reports of copper discoveries have been received. Iron and tin have also been found in the Province.

The only mills in the Province are saw-mills, three being in Hokitika, three at Greymouth, and in nearly every township there is one or more mills to supply the local demand for timber. There is a foundry at Hokitika, and one at Greymouth. A rope manufactory is being started at Greymouth, one being already in full work on the opposite side of the river at Cobden.

Miners, navvies, agricultural labourers, and men handy with the axe for bushmen, are in great demand here. The contractors for the construction of public works at present find difficulties in obtaining labour. When the Waima and other races are fairly started, the difficulties of obtaining labour will be very much increased, and when the races are finished, there will be employment for twice the number of our present mining population. Ground that is considered, with the appliances at hand, to be too poor to pay wages, can with water be profitably worked.

The following are the rates of wages here:—Labourers on roads and public works, 10s. and 12s. per day of eight hours; carpenters and tradesmen, 16s. ditto; sawyers at mills, 10s. ditto; labourers and bushmen, 10s. ditto; miners in mines in or near the towns, £3 per week; miners in mines distant from the townships and in the southern parts of the Province, £4 to £5 per week; farm labourers, 30s. to 35s. per week, with board and lodging; coal miners, 4s. per ton, working in a seam of coal from 12 ft. to 21 ft. thick.

It is not customary in Westland for employers to ration their labourers: the latter are either paid weekly wages and supply themselves with food, or else they have their meals with their employers. If labourers desired rations, farmers would not think of allowing them less than



FRANCIS JOSEPH GLACIER,

*From a Sketch by the Hon. W. Fox.*





10½ lb. flour, 4 oz. tea, 2 lb. sugar, and 12 lb. meat per week.

The following public works in the Province are either in course of construction, or are likely to be commenced within a year or so:—Main road completed from Hokitika to Okarita, and from thence to the southern boundary of the Province.

Road from Greenstone (Pounamu) to Lake Brunner, and to the boundary of Province of Nelson.

Road from Taipo River to Nelson Province *via* Bell Hill.

Surveyors are now engaged surveying trial lines for a line of railway to connect Hokitika with the main line of railway on the East Coast, Canterbury.

The Kanieri race is being pushed vigorously on, and the Mikonuirace and Waimera race are expected to be taken in hand shortly. The other races constructing at present are, the Hibernian race and New River race—both in the Paroa district. Besides these works in course of construction, the extension of the Hohonu race, Totara and Jones' Creek, the Alpine and the Okarita Lake races, and the roads and public works in hand will give employment, for years to come, to ordinary labour.

Every labouring man may feel himself perfectly independent in Westland. If he is not contented with the employment offered him, he can always provide for himself by gold mining, with the chances of obtaining much more than a mere living. From the records, there never was a district that exported so much gold in proportion to its population as Westland has done since its first settlement.

The price of ordinary farm stock, sound and in good condition, is—For working bullocks, £9; working horses, £30; mixed cows, £4; and sheep (60 lb. carcass), 10s. per head.

The following are the prices of the ordinary necessaries of life:—

Flour, 8s. per 50 lb. bag.

Mutton and beef, 3d. to 6d. per lb.

Butter, 9d. per lb.

Potatoes, 5s. per cwt.

Cheese, 10d. per lb.

Ham and bacon, 9d. to 1s. per lb.

Tea, 2s. 6d. per lb.

Sugar, 5d. per lb.

Churches of all denominations are supported by voluntary contributions. They receive no state aid, excepting the land reserved in the several townships for the use of each religious body.

*The Church of England.*—All that part of the Province south of the Teremakau is in the diocese of Christchurch, and that

north of the Teremakau is in the diocese of Nelson. Churches are established in Hokitika, Greymouth, Kanieri, Ross, Goldsbrough, Stafford, and a Maori church at the Arakura. All these churches have Sunday-schools attached to them.

The Roman Catholic churches are connected with the diocese of Wellington, and are in the following places:—Hokitika, Greymouth, Ross, Goldsbrough, Stafford, Greenstone, Maori Gully, Five-Mile Beach, Okarita, and a church is in course of erection at Kanieri. A priest visits the settlements in the southern parts of the Province, as far as Hunt's Beach, every three months. In connection with these churches, catechism is taught every Sunday.

Presbyterian churches, under the Presbytery of Westland, are in Hokitika, Greymouth, Stafford, Ross, Eight-Mile, and Hau-Hau. Each Presbyterian church has its Sabbath school, the total number attending being 344 children and 48 teachers.

The Wesleyan Methodist Church has in the Province 3 resident ministers, 9 churches, 8 reading stations, 12 lay preachers, 55 Sunday-school teachers, and 10 Sabbath schools.

A Lutheran minister occasionally visits the Province, and holds Divine service in the several towns.

The Hebrew congregation have a synagogue in Hokitika.

The Government set apart reserves of land for educational purposes. In the towns of Hokitika, Greymouth, and Ross, each denomination has its school; besides these, there are many private schools in the above towns. The Provincial Council vote a sum of money (about £1,000 per annum) for educational purposes. This sum is handed to the Board of Education—composed of members of the different religious denominations—for distribution to the schools, to supplement the school fees and aids granted by School Committees, and received by the teachers as salaries. The school buildings have been built, in the large towns by the religious bodies, and in the small towns and other localities by Local Committees. None has been built by the Government.

The principal hospital is at Hokitika, but there is another at Greymouth and one at Ross. These are supported by voluntary contributions and Government aid. The Province being divided into districts, each district has its Hospital Committee, who raise money to supplement the Government vote for hospitals.

There are in Hokitika a lunatic asylum and a Benevolent Society.

The rents for ordinary dwelling-houses in Hokitika and the country townships are, for a four-roomed cottage, 6s. to 8s. per week; but at Greymouth the rents are at least half as much more than in Hokitika. Land being so cheap, persons generally own the cottages they live in. There is a Building Society at Greymouth, and the Hokitika Savings Bank makes liberal advances at reasonable rates to small borrowers. The cost of erecting cottages, both in town and country, is at the rate of about 5d. per cubic foot: that is, a two-roomed building, each room about 10 ft. square with 8-ft. walls, would cost about £35.

No one with a family should attempt to come here without some money to keep him and his family for a few weeks, to give him time to look around for suitable employment; but it is different with single men and women. If they desire it, they can get employment the day they arrive in the Province.

The climate of Westland is so uniform that the same clothing may be worn in the hottest day of summer and the coldest day of winter. The nearest port to ship for is Nelson: from thence in a few hours one can arrive in Westland.

## PROVINCE OF MARLBOROUGH.

### DESCRIPTION.

THE Province of Marlborough is situated at the north-eastern extremity of the Southern Island, its boundaries being on the north, a portion of the Strait dividing the two Islands, on the east the coast line down to the mouth of the River Conway, and on the south and west the Province of Nelson.

Its total area is about three million acres, of which 200,000 acres may be described as agricultural land, 1,300,000 acres as well suited for pastoral occupation, 50,000 acres forest land fit for cultivation after clearing, and the remainder hilly or mountainous country, heavily timbered, or of a rugged and bleak aspect. At the present time, there are about 18,313 acres broken up, and cultivated or sown in artificial grasses, about 525,000 acres have been disposed of to settlers, and there remain about 2,500,000 acres still in the possession of the Crown, and to be obtained under the Provincial waste lands regulations.

The physical geography of the country may be described as a succession of parallel valleys and mountain ranges, running something like north-east and south-west, the most northerly and westerly valleys being those of the Pelorus and the Rai, to which further reference will be made in regard to the valuable timber trade which is carried on in the districts formed by

them. In the valley of the Wakamarina, a tributary of the Pelorus, discoveries of gold of no small magnitude have been made. The Wairau Valley, the next in a southerly direction, is mainly an extensive plain, comprising some 100,000 acres, the land being of a rich loamy character, similar in many respects to the plain of Canterbury, the vegetation consisting of extensive fields of the most luxuriant growth of flax, and in the drier portions and at the bases of the hills, of fern and tussock grass. This fertile plain is watered chiefly by the rivers Omaka, Opawa, and Wairau, with their tributary streams; the rivers themselves being navigable for a distance of about twelve miles by coasters and small steamers, and the smaller streams supplying abundant water-power, easily made available for mills and factories of various descriptions. Further still to the south are the Awatere, Clarence, and Kaikoura districts, a great portion of which is at present occupied by extensive sheep-runs; but the excellent quality of the land, and its evident capability for agricultural purposes, point out that, at no distant date, these will become the centre of a large producing population. Already at the southern extremity of the Province, and gradually but steadily encroaching upon the pastoral lands surrounding it, is situated a farming settlement of increasing importance, with a town and port of its own, called Kaikoura.



What is now the Province of Marlborough formed, under the Constitution Act of 1852, a part of the Province of Nelson, the northernmost of the three original divisions of the Southern Island, and continued so up to the time when the energy of the settlers in the Wairau and surrounding districts succeeded in severing the political connection of the north-eastern from the remaining portion of the Province, and giving to the latter the advantages of local self-government. On the 1st of November, 1859, availing themselves of the provisions of "The New Provinces Act, 1858," the inhabitants of those districts separated from the parent stock, and forming a new division under the name of the Province of Marlborough, entered upon a career of independence and self-government.

#### LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

The Local Government of the Province is similar in most respects to that of the eight other Provinces of the Colony, being, however, somewhat less complicated in its action than that of the Provinces first established under the Constitution Act. Up to the year 1870, the Provincial Government undertook the entire charge of receiving and disbursing that part of the public revenue not under the control of the General Government of the Colony; but at that date the Province was subdivided into five lesser divisions or counties, viz. Wairau, Picton, Awatere, Kaikoura, and Pelorus, each having its Road or County Board, with power to levy rates, within certain defined limits prescribed by Act, for the maintenance of its roads and other local purposes. The governing bodies of the towns resemble those in other parts of the Colony, with like powers of rating and of making regulations for order and regularity.

#### POPULATION AND PROGRESS.

At the time of the dismemberment of the original Province of Nelson, the population of the separated districts forming the new Province of Marlborough was about 1,000; at the census taken in 1871 it was somewhat over 5,000; and at the census in March, 1874, the population had increased to 6,143. Small as were the resources of the new Province at the time of separation, that movement was the commencement of an era of prosperity and progress. Roads were formed, population increased, absenteeism was gradually replaced by *bona fide* settlement, and communication between the various districts was opened up. Year

by year its industrial capabilities have increased, until at the present time, in proportion to its size and population, it may be considered one of the largest exporting Provinces of New Zealand. In wool, it rivals Canterbury; in timber, Auckland; in the development of the flax industry, it is second to none; while in agricultural and general produce it also holds a high position. Nowhere in the Colony has local self-government been enjoyed with such a zest as in Marlborough, showing the healthy interest taken by the settlers in the welfare of their country; and however strongly at times the battle of politics may have raged, it has never interfered with the principles of good government. Nowhere else in New Zealand have public affairs received so much attention, or been carried on with such economy. The seats in the Provincial Council, the Road and Education Boards, the Borough and Town Councils, have all been filled by active and zealous men, seeking no remuneration for their services, but freely devoting their time and energies in the endeavour to further the development and advance the prosperity of the Province.

In point of beauty, and even grandeur of scenery, the Province of Marlborough may compare favourably with any part of the Colony. The Pelorus Sound towards the north presents an aspect perhaps unequalled for variety and romantic grandeur. Resembling in many respects the lochs of Scotland, the heavily-timbered slopes and clear running streams of the interior recall the picturesque quietness of the Devonshire valleys; and these joined to the distinctive features of the New Zealand bush, combine to form a picture which is elsewhere unsurpassed. It may be described as a beautiful inland sheet of water, with innumerable arms and deeply-indented bays; so that although the main channel is not more than thirty miles long, it comprises a coast line of upwards of five hundred miles. Separated from the Pelorus Sound by a neck of land about three miles wide, is Queen Charlotte's Sound, a sheet of water of a similar character, having two outlets, the north channel being the larger. This is used by vessels entering from the north or west. The other entrance, or Tory Channel, scarcely a quarter of a mile in width, is used in communication with Wellington and the east coasts of both Islands. At the bottom of this sound is situated the port of Picton, a small but prettily-situated town, deriving its principal importance from being the nearest port in the South Island to Wellington in the North Island. Large quantities of timber



are shipped from this port to all parts of the Colony; and when the railway connecting it with the interior of the Province, now in course of construction, has been completed, it will in all probability become the *entrepôt* of a large and important export trade.

#### DISTRICTS.

The northern counties of Picton and Pelorus may be said to be entirely occupied by the timber trade and industries connected with it. These districts have also been proved to be highly auriferous, and a considerable number of men are at the present time employed both at alluvial digging and at the quartz reefs.

On the level plains of the Wairau, farming operations and the manufacture of *Phormium* fibre almost exclusively prevail, while the southern districts of Awatere and Kaikoura are mainly occupied by extensive sheep-runs. The principal town in the district of Wairau is Blenheim, the seat of the Provincial Government, and a number of smaller townships, more or less developed, are scattered at intervals throughout this part of the Province. Blenheim is situated nearly in the centre of the Wairau plain, and at the junction of the Omaka and Opawa rivers. These rivers, being navigable for vessels up to 100 tons, constitute it a shipping port of no small importance, and a large and increasing export and import trade is carried on with the two neighbouring Provinces of Wellington and Nelson. Large quantities of wool, flax, and tallow are also shipped at this port for transshipment to the English trading vessels which annually visit the commodious harbour of Port Underwood, situated about twelve miles from the mouth of the Opawa River. The overflow of this river, which occurs occasionally after heavy downfalls of winter rains, has given the town of Blenheim and the surrounding neighbourhood a somewhat unenviable notoriety as a district liable to destructive floods, but the effect of these inundations has been considerably exaggerated. By means of the protective works already executed, and of those still in course of construction, their frequency has been much diminished, and a slight and temporary inconvenience is now the only evil resulting from them.

#### LAND LAWS.

The regulations for the sale or letting of the waste lands of the Province of Marlborough, differ in many respects from those in force in other parts of the Colony. Sale by auction is here the main principle

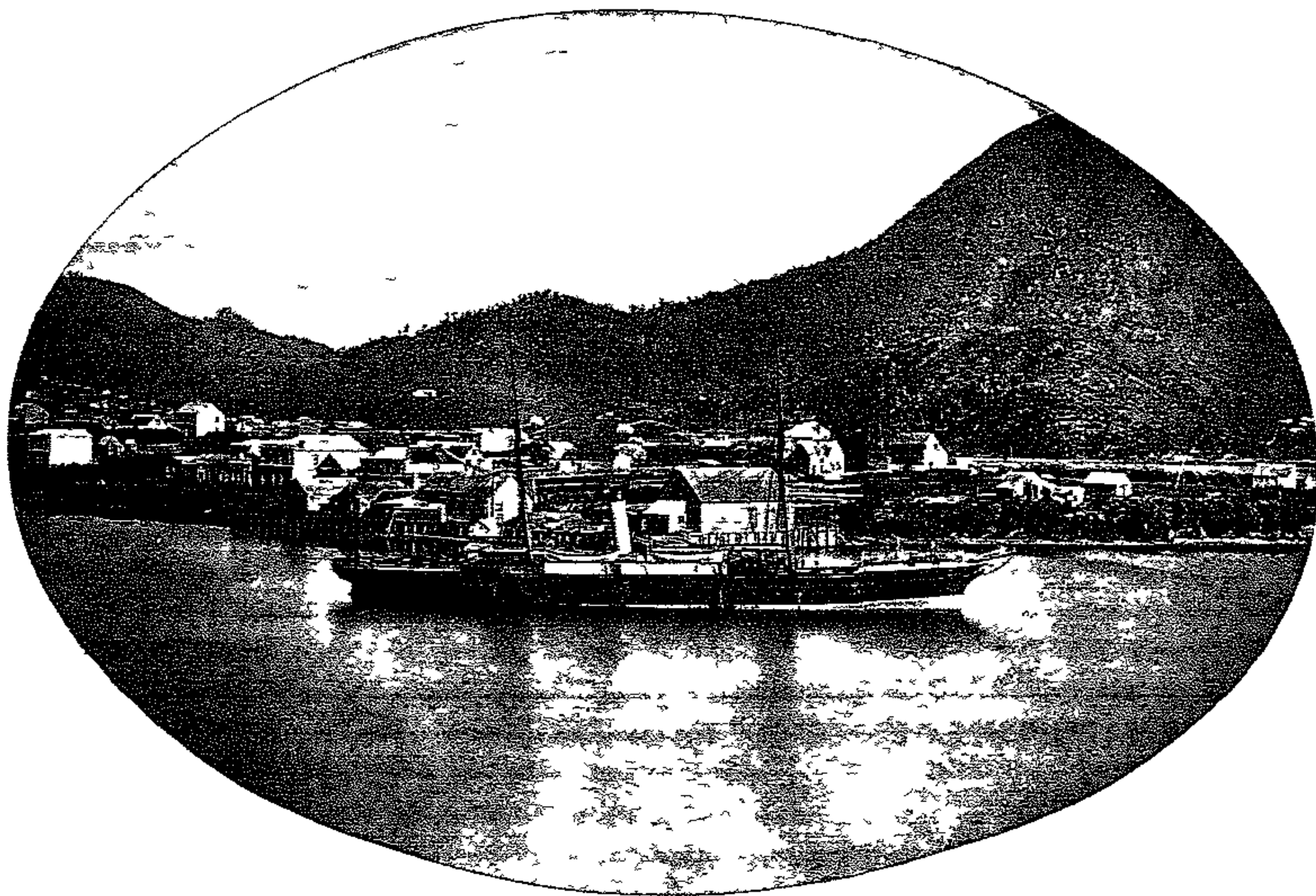
of the manner of its disposal; and for the purpose of determining a certain upset price, all unsold Crown lands are classed under one of the following headings:—

1. Town.
2. Suburban (being land in the vicinity of townships, or sites for towns).
3. Rural (land suitable for agricultural purposes).
4. Pasture (being such as, from its hilly and broken character, and the inferior quality of its soil, appears unsuitable for agricultural purposes).
5. Mineral.

Townships and villages are laid out by the Government as they are required, and in the meantime sites are reserved from sale. The surrounding land is also laid out and reserved as suburban.

Rural, or agricultural, and pasture lands are open to be applied for by any person. As soon as possible after application is made, a surveyor is sent by the Government (at the applicant's expense) to make the necessary survey. The Waste Lands Board, which consists of the members of the Executive Council of the Province and the Commissioner of Crown Lands (an officer of the General Government), then proceeds to assess the value of the land applied for, and to fix an upset price, at which it is submitted to public auction and sold to the highest bidder, 10 per cent. of the purchase money being required at the time of sale, and the remainder within one month from that period. Land for which no bid is made at a public auction sale, may be purchased at any time within two years, by paying the full amount of the original reserved price.

Besides this manner of disposing of the waste lands, there is a provision in the land law of this Province, by which persons may acquire land in payment of the execution by them of public works, such as roads, bridges, buildings, &c.; and under this provision some thousands of acres have been granted within the last few years. The system prescribed by the Waste Lands Act is as follows:—The Provincial Government advertise for tenders to execute the road or other work which is required, and the lowest eligible tender is accepted. The successful tenderer then selects a block of land, which is assessed in the same manner as land for sale by auction, and on his signifying his approval of the assessment, the work is proceeded with, and the land reserved from public sale for the space of twelve months. On the completion of the works, the contractor is entitled to receive a Crown grant of the land selected by him.





Pastoral leases and licenses are granted over unoccupied pastoral lands to any person who applies for them, the terms being, for leases fourteen years, with the right of renewal at the expiration of that period at double the original rent, and for licenses fourteen years. The license differs from the lease by simply giving the right of grazing over the land taken up; while the lease, of course, gives the exclusive right of using the land for the full term of its duration. The rent under a lease is determined by the Waste Lands Board, but the Act prescribes that it shall be charged upon the carrying capability of the land, at the rate of 3s. 6d. a year for each head of cattle, and 7d. for each sheep. The rent under a license is 1d. an acre for the first seven years, and 2d. an acre for the second term of seven years.

Licenses for felling timber on the forest lands of the Province are also issued to bushmen and settlers, the fee being £1 per acre per year.

Mineral lands, or those supposed to contain minerals, are let under lease by the Waste Lands Board, for any term not exceeding 21 years.

The average assessed price of the Crown lands in this Province at the present time may be quoted as follows:—

Town lands, £15 to £100 per acre.

Rural lands, £1 per acre.

Pasture lands, 7s. per acre.

Bush or forest lands, £1. 5s. per acre.

Mineral lands (mostly held under lease).

The practice of renting improved farms is not very general in this Province; but little difficulty would be experienced by persons wishing to do so, and favourable terms could be obtained.

#### ARTICLES OF PRODUCTION.

The principal articles of production in Marlborough are, agricultural produce of all kinds, wool, flax, tallow, malt, hops, and timber. The level lands of the Wairau and vicinity are eminently adapted to the raising of most descriptions of cereals, whilst the mild temperature of the seasons is especially favourable to the successful carrying on of farming operations. The size of arable farms varies from 10 to 20, and up to 2,000 acres. The latest improvements in agricultural machinery are in use in most districts; on one large estate, steam cultivators have been successfully employed for several seasons.

At the census in 1871, the cultivated land in the Province amounted to 28,313 acres: 22,126 acres were in sown grasses,

2,686 acres in wheat, 1,139 acres in oats, and 1,438 acres in barley. The average yield of the cereal crops may be said to be—Wheat, 25 bushels; oats, 40 bushels; barley, 30 bushels to the acre; while returns of upwards of 60 bushels are not uncommon. The cost of preparing unimproved land for a grain crop may be estimated at from 30s. to £2 per acre. Threshing and harvesting operations are generally contracted for by persons possessing the necessary machinery, the usual course being for the contractor to find the labour required at a certain price, the farmer lodging and feeding the hands, and supplying the fuel necessary for the engine. The average cost of threshing is about 7d. per bushel, but may vary slightly in proportion to the scarcity of labour.

In relation to the subject of farming in this Province, a reference to the meteorological returns may be useful and instructive. Taking the last five years, the reading of the thermometer shows a mean temperature of 53·4, the highest mean being 64·3 and the lowest 42·8. In regard to the seasons, the mean of spring was 59·5; of summer, 63·1; of autumn, 53·4; and of winter, 43·9; all the above observations being taken at 9 a.m. Slight frosts occur in the winter, and snow is occasionally, but rarely, seen except in the mountainous districts. The climate of the Province is exceedingly equable, and resembles somewhat that of Devonshire, with, however, considerably less rainfall, and probably gives a larger number of working days than any other part of New Zealand. Geraniums, verbenas, fuchsias, and most plants which in England are termed greenhouse-plants, live out the winter here without protection; and vines have, to some extent, been successfully cultivated, as espaliers, in the open air.

Chief amongst the productions of the Province of Marlborough at the present time may, perhaps, be placed wool.\* A large extent of country, a great part of which for many years will probably be unsuitable for any other purpose, is devoted to the depasturing of sheep. In 1872, the land held under lease as run land amounted to 1,280,000 acres, and the export of wool for that year was 1,600,000 lb., represent-

\* The return of the wool export obtained from the statistical reports does not correctly state the actual quantity exported from this Province, a considerable portion being shipped at Wellington, of which no account is taken here. This is also true of other products.



ing a value of £81,500. A considerable number of men find remunerative employment on the sheep-stations at all times of the year, but more especially at the busy time of shearing.

Another staple article of production and export, closely connected with the preceding, being usually carried on under the same management, is tallow. The carrying capabilities of the runs not sufficing for the steady increase of the stock depastured on them, and the low price of meat not affording a payable market for the surplus to any great extent, it becomes necessary to find other means for its profitable disposal; and for this purpose boiling-down establishments are generally to be found on large stations. At these, considerable quantities of tallow, obtained from the surplus stock by rendering it down by means of steam in immense vats or boilers, are packed in casks and exported to England, the hams and tongues cured, and the skins either dressed on the spot or dried and packed in bales for exportation. For these operations, a large number of men for the various departments are naturally required, and good wages are obtained by them. The preservation of meat in tins has not yet been attempted here, the scarcity of the particular class of labour required being probably the principal obstacle to its introduction.

We come now to another of the important industries carried on in the Province, that of timber. The prosecution of this trade for export is almost entirely confined to the extensive area of timbered land situated in the northern part of the Province, in the bays and inlets bordering on the Pelorus Sound, and in the districts adjoining the shipping port of Havelock. Between that port and the southern boundary of the Province of Nelson, lies the valley of the Rai, which embraces about 20,000 acres of land, comparatively level throughout, and well watered by the Rai River and its tributaries. The whole of this district is covered by the best descriptions of timber, and the land itself, when cleared, is of the finest quality. No settlement has yet been made in this valley, but it has lately been surveyed and laid out in sections by the Provincial Government, and will shortly be thrown open for selection. It is also proposed to construct a tramway through the heart of this district from the port of Havelock, which will be the means of greatly facilitating the shipment of the sawn timber. Some idea of the importance of the future timber trade of the Rai Valley may be gained from the fact that it

has been estimated that the proposed tramway will open up 50,000 acres of forest land, which, taken at the low rate of 10,000 ft. to the acre (the lowest price at which sawn timber is sold being 8s. per 100 ft.), would realize about £2,000,000.

The principal forest trees consumed in the timber trade of these districts are white pine, rimu, matai, and totara; many of these reaching a height of 100 ft. and upwards, growing exceedingly straight, and being usually without branches up to a distance of 20 ft. or 30 ft. from the ground.

In the neighbourhood around Picton and Havelock are situated from fifteen to twenty saw-mills, the machinery being driven either by steam or water power. All these are in full work, and give employment to a considerable number of sawyers, engineers, axemen, splitters, teamsters, and general labourers. At some of the mills it is the practice to employ all the labour required, from the felling of the tree to the export of the finished article; the wages given being, for mill hands, from 10s. to 12s. a day, and for those employed in cutting and carting, from 8s. to 10s. Many men, however, especially those living at a distance from the mills, prefer cutting the timber on their own account, paying the Government license, on the land they have selected. The felled logs they afterwards dispose of to the mill-owners, transporting them either by rafting or by means of bullock teams. The usual price paid for timber in the log is 3s. per 100 ft. and a constant and almost unlimited demand at this rate can be maintained for many years.

In the preparation of the *Phormium* fibre, Marlborough has been, from the first introduction of the industry, one of the principal exporting districts. At present, there are about eight mills, with from two to six machines in each. Many men are also employed in cutting and carting the raw material to the mills, for which they are usually paid by the load. The operations of stripping, washing, and bleaching are carried on by men and boys, who receive wages varying from 10s. to 15s. a week for boys, and from 20s. to 25s. a week for men, board and lodging being also found. The scutching of the fibre and packing it in bales for export, is generally undertaken by contract, the ordinary price given being at the rate of 30s. per ton. Whenever practicable, water power is employed to drive the machinery necessary for the extraction and preparation of the fibre, and this has, of course, a considerable advantage over steam power, in the saving of the fuel and labour required for the latter. The

state of the flax trade at present cannot be considered as satisfactory, owing to circumstances affecting the English market; but there can be no doubt that a little time will remove the difficulties retarding its development, and that it will ultimately produce one of the largest and most remunerative articles of export. At the Peninsula mill, in the Wairau district, may be seen the latest improvement in flax machinery. This is a machine invented by Mr. Pownall, which differs from the ordinary stripping machine by more closely imitating the scraping process employed by the Natives. Up to the present time, the powers of this new machine have not been sufficiently tested to allow of a report being made upon its perfect success, but it has



PHORMIUM TENAX.

*From a Photograph by Mr. Mundy.*

been proved to turn out fibre of a very superior quality to that produced by the older machines, and less labour is required to work it.

In abundance and quality of the raw material, and facilities for producing the manufactured product at a paying price, no other Province, perhaps, possesses so many advantages as Marlborough.

The cultivation of hops is carried on in most

parts of the Province, the soil and climate being especially adapted to the growth of this plant, which, with ordinary attention, will produce an abundant harvest, as it is not here subject to blight. The manufacture of malt is also beginning to attract attention, and several malthouses exist in the Province. One of these is situated about three miles from Blenheim, and is probably the largest in New Zealand.



Amongst the industries which might be carried on with advantage, in addition to those at present in operation, or those which are capable of improvement and development, may be mentioned fish-curing, rope and woollen factories, paper-making, preserves from fruit, fellmongering in all its branches, and meat-preserving. The Pelorus and Queen Charlotte Sounds would form admirable stations for fish-curing on a large scale. Fish of all kinds, and oysters, are plentiful; and the herring-fishery offers every inducement for a profitable investment. At present, although the industry is not prosecuted to any great extent, the Picton bleaters are famous in all parts of the Colony. The culture of oyster-beds would also be found profitable, and capable of great extension.

Factories for the supply of woollen fabrics and the manufacture of rope, woolpacks, and other kinds of bagging from the *Phormium* fibre, could be advantageously worked, as the cost of sending home the raw material is such as to afford considerable inducement to local enterprise. Paper might be made from the refuse fibre and tow, and it has been proved that this material would produce an article of very superior quality. Fruits of all kinds which grow in the southern part of England are very plentiful. From them, jams and preserves could be manufactured for export, and a ready market could confidently be relied on.

In fellmongering and wool-scutting a much larger trade could be carried on than at present. Large numbers of skins are exported in the raw state, and many more absolutely wasted for want of the necessary appliances, labour, and capital.

Meat-preserving in tins should, before long, form one of the principal articles of the export trade of the Province. For this it possesses particular advantages, and capital and enterprise are the only things required to cause this industry to prove a profitable speculation.

For most trades requiring the application of machinery, admirable sites could be selected, possessing every advantage of easy communication with the centres of population and the shipping ports, and water-power is readily obtainable, in consequence of the number of streams and the abundance of water supply afforded by the proximity of the mountain ranges.

Many other industries could be instanced, needing only enterprise, capital, and a sufficient supply of ordinary and skilled labour, to insure their proving profitable. In labour, however, this part of the Colony is unfortunately deficient; but it is hoped, and may

reasonably be expected, that the present scheme of immigration will before long supply this much-needed requirement, and thus afford an impetus to the undertaking, on a large scale, of many of the enterprises for which the Province of Marlborough is peculiarly adapted.

#### MINERALS.

The chief mineral discovered in the Province, and the only one which has as yet been worked, is gold. This has been found as an alluvial deposit in payable quantities in the valley of the Wakamarina. It has also been found under the same circumstances on the opposite watershed, viz., that leading to the valley of the Wairau, and in more or less quantities over the whole of the district north of the Wairau River, extending westward as far as the boundary of the Province. In 1866, the news of the discovery of a payable alluvial gold field in the Wakamarina district caused considerable excitement, and attracted a large number of persons from all parts of the Colony, and even from Australia. The auriferous district comprised a small tract of land in the neighbourhood of the town of Havelock,—then a small village in the bush, occupied by a few persons employed in the timber trade, but which, from the influx of population, speedily rose to some importance and magnitude. Rich, however, as was the district, it was soon found that the gold-producing area was of a very limited extent; and in the course of about twelve months it appeared to have been entirely worked out. It has, nevertheless, since then maintained about 100 miners, who are understood to make good wages. Practical miners concur in believing that before many years the source from which the alluvial deposits found in the valleys were washed down will be discovered, and that a large extent of gold-bearing country will be opened up.

The country north of the Wairau River is thickly intersected by gold-bearing quartz reefs. Some of these, at Cape Jackson, in Queen Charlotte Sound, are being worked, and are proving to be rich, and others will shortly be in operation in the Pelorus Sound, at a short distance from Picton.

The general aspect of the country north of the Wairau, the frequent presence of quartz reefs, and, in the lower parts of the valleys, of alluvial deposits, have always pointed out those districts to experienced miners as being rich in the precious metal, and there can be no doubt that, as the population of the Province increases, important discoveries will be made.



Dr. Hector, the General Government Geologist, speaking of the Wakamarina gold-field, says:—"Gold was obtained on terraces along the sides of the valley, and in the river bed, the wash everywhere resting on water-worn bars and ledges of greenstone, slate, and alphanite breccia. From the wash in other streams traversing the same formation being barren of gold, I infer that in this instance it must have been derived from some distance, or from towards the source of the stream in the central ranges."

Antimony has been found to exist in payable quantities in the neighbourhood of Mahakipawa, in the Pelorus Sound, and preparations are being made to work it at Endeavour Inlet, in the north of Queen Charlotte's Sound.

Copper has not yet been discovered in a lode, but such quantities of loose ore have been found on the surface, that there is no doubt of the existence of payable lodes, which only require capital to bring them into notice.

Coal occurs under similar circumstances, in the valleys of the Wairau and Clarence, but has not yet been discovered in any considerable quantity. In his abstract report of the geological survey of New Zealand, referring to the coal measures of this Province, Dr. Hector says:—"The easterly coal formation of the Province of Marlborough is very small. It crops out at places along the coast with a dip to the east, but it hardly appears inland at all, except at the Amuri Bluff, where a few yards of coal may be found. The evidence is pretty conclusive that a large coal formation exists, under the sea, along the coast between Cape Campbell and Banks Peninsula, and if these small brown coal formations are only found in small isolated basins, several may exist along the line."

Hematite has been found at Mahakipawa, and is capable of being worked to great advantage.

#### DEMAND FOR LABOUR.

All kinds of labour may be said to be in demand in this Province; but the classes most particularly required are ordinary farm labourers, carpenters and mechanics, navvies, bush hands, shepherds, miners, and domestic female servants. At the time of harvest, the dearth of labour to gather in the crops, more especially as this operation is generally carried on about the same time as that of sheep-shearing, has been severely felt for several seasons past. At that time of the year, in order to meet the demand, it has been found necessary to

completely stop work at many of the flax-mills and at other works—these industries, however, finding plenty of employment for a large number of men during the rest of the year. Carpenters and mechanics have also been very scarce of late, in consequence of the great increase in the building trades, and have been able to command excessively high wages. The railway and other General and Provincial Government works at present in progress are well able to absorb a considerable number of men of various trades and occupations for some time to come; in fact, the want of the necessary labour prevents many undertakings from being carried out, and seriously retards the completion of those in course of construction. Shepherds are much required on the sheep-stations, and are especially welcome if they can bring sheep-dogs with them. By so doing, they can command constant work at high wages. In the present state of the mining industry, there is a demand for a few good miners, and when the mines become more fully opened up and developed, a considerable amount of skilled labour will be required, both in the erection and working of the necessary machinery, and in the extraction of the ores themselves. The supply of domestic female servants has been for some time totally unequal to the demand, this class being most particularly inquired for. They can obtain high wages, and have no difficulty in finding situations immediately on landing.

#### RATES OF WAGES.

The following may be considered to be the usual scale of wages throughout the year, and at the present time many representatives of each class could find employment at these rates:—

Carpenters, 10s. to 12s. per day (at present 14s. per day); mechanics, 12s. per day; farm labourers, 8s. per day, or 20s. to 25s. per week, and found; teamsters, 8s. to 10s. per day; axemen, 10s. per day; splitters, 10s. per day; saw-mill hands, 8s. per day to £4 per week; flax-mill hands—men, 20s. to 25s. per week, and found; ditto, boys, 10s. to 15s. per week, and found; navvies, 8s. to 10s. per day; shepherds and station hands, £50 to £70 per annum; bakers, £2 a week, and found; butchers, 30s. a week, and found; painters and glaziers, £3 a week; storemen, £2. 5s. to £3 a week; printers, ruling colonial rates; brewers, £2 to £3 a week; cooks, £30 to £50 per annum, and found; general female servants, £30 to £50 per annum, and found; housemaids, £30 to £40 per annum, and found; farm labourers and flax-mill and station

hands are, as a rule, found in board and lodging when engaged by the week or for a longer period, and rations are generally given, *ad libitum*; but when limited to a fixed scale, consist of flour, 12 lb.; sugar, 3 lb.; tea,  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; and other small articles as required. It is, however, unusual to give rations, and when men are found, they are generally supplied with unlimited quantities of cooked food of good quality, the usual plan being for the station or mill owner to contract with some person at a fixed rate per head, and to supply the necessary articles to him also at a fixed price.

Ample employment is always to be found by contracting for the public works initiated by the General and Provincial Governments and the Local Boards. Of the former, the Pictou and Blenheim Railway, now in progress, needs a very much greater number of men than are at present engaged upon it; and of the latter, works of many descriptions, such as bridges, roads, and buildings, are from time to time let by public tender.

#### PRICES OF STOCK, PROVISIONS, &c.

The present prices of ordinary farm stock in this Province may be quoted as follows:—

Draught horses, £22 to £50; saddle-horses, £8 to £30; working bullocks, £25 per pair; milch cows, £6 to £12; weaned calves, 10s. to 15s. each; sheep, 3s. to 8s. each. Good bullock-drays may be obtained at from £20 to £30 each, or even at lower prices, this mode of transport being little used now-a-days, except in the bush or mountainous districts. Horse-drays are worth from £22 to £24; harness, from £3 to £4 the double set. Ploughs range, according to the maker, from £8 to £10, and other ordinary farm implements in proportion.

The following quotations are the average retail prices, in most parts of the Province, for the usual necessities of life:—

Flour, 16s. per 100 lb.; tea, 2s. to 3s. 6d. per lb.; sugar, 5d. to 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.; butter, 9d. to 1s. 6d. per lb.; eggs, 9d. to 1s. 6d. per dozen; milk, 3d. per quart; sperm candles, 1s. 1d. per lb.; tallow candles, 10d. per lb.; cheese, 9d. to 1s. per lb.; bacon, 9d. to 1s. per lb.; mutton, 4d. per lb., and by the half sheep, 3d. per lb.; beef, 4d. to 6d. per lb.; pork, 5d. to 6d. per lb.; firewood (delivered in town or at reasonable distances), £1 to £2. 2s. per cord; coals (delivered in town or at reasonable distances), £2. 15s. per ton.

The price of ordinary clothing and drapery may be considered to be an advance of from 40 to 50 per cent. on English prices.

Farm produce at present commands high prices, merchants and storekeepers giving for wheat 5s. 6d. per bushel; oats, 5s. per bushel; barley, 4s. 6d. per bushel; hay, £5 per ton; potatoes, £5 per ton.

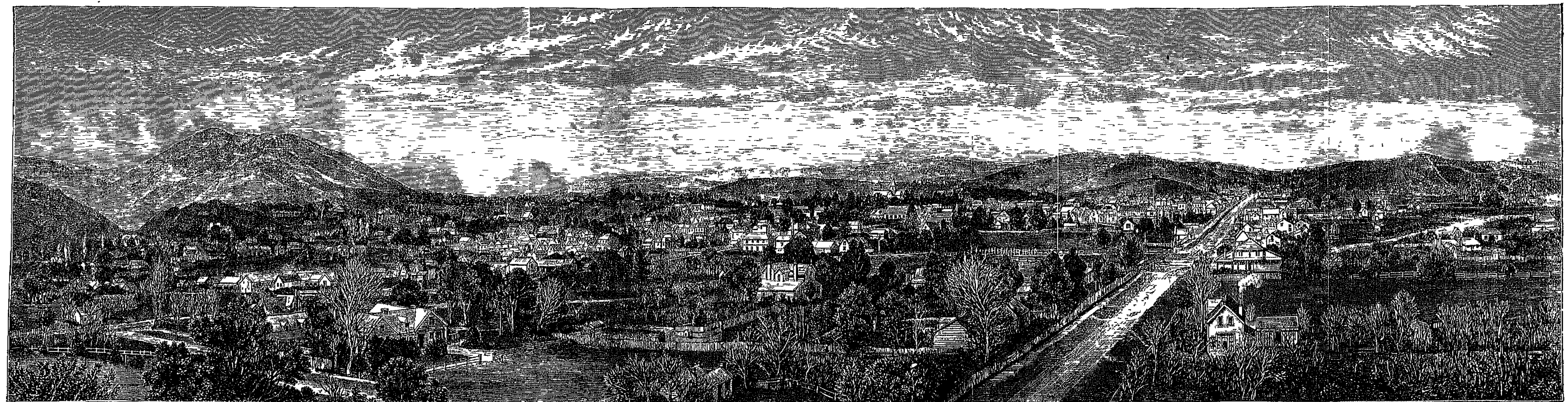
The usual rent in towns, of a cottage suitable for a small family, may be set down at from 5s. to 8s. a week; and to build one of this kind detached would cost from £60 to £100. Timber, delivered, is charged at from 10s. to 12s. per 100 ft.; shingles for roofing, 11s. per 1,000; while doors and windows are generally imported in a complete state, and sold at moderate prices.

It will thus be seen that the Province of Marlborough offers considerable inducements to emigrants of various classes. The demand for labour is very great, and the supply totally inadequate; the wages given are consequently high, while the cost of living may be seen from the quotations given to be exceedingly low. Emigrant, possessing a little capital may easily secure land on which to settle and form homes themselves; and by taking up small contracts either on road work, in the bush, or on farms, a steady and industrious man will in a short time be able to obtain a comfortable independence.

#### EDUCATION.

The educational system of the Province is under the control of the members of the various Road Boards and Borough Councils, which are constituted Education Boards for the purpose of undertaking the establishment and management of the schools within their respective districts. The necessary funds for the maintenance of these schools are raised by a rate levied upon all property ratable under the provisions of the Roads Act, it being, however, provided that this shall not exceed 2d. in the pound, for each year, on the annual letting value of the property rated. Besides the sum accruing from this source, all fees received for publicans' licenses are paid over to the Education Board of the County or Borough within the limits of which the fees are levied. In all the public schools, the instruction given is purely of a secular character. The number at present established is about fifteen, with from twenty-five to ninety scholars at each; and it is incumbent on the Education Boards of any district, whenever it is shown to their satisfaction that twenty children are residing at a greater distance than three miles from an existing school, to provide one for their benefit. The Education Boards also grant sums at their discretion in aid of efforts made by private individuals or associations for the





PANORAMA OF NELSON.



promotion of education, such schools being subject to the inspection of the Board.

### RELIGIOUS.

The principal religious denominations in the Province are—Episcopalian, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, and Wesleyan. All of these have places of worship at or near the centres of population, and their ministers visit the out-lying districts as occasion may require. The Roman Catholics, on account of their objection to the system of secular education, have also established their own schools, which are not, however, confined exclusively to their body, but are thrown open to children of all religious denominations. They are well attended, and satisfaction is expressed by parents sending their children to them at the class of instruction given. The charge at these schools is at the rate of about 15s. a quarter for each child.

### ADVICE TO IMMIGRANTS.

Depôts for receiving and accommodating immigrants until they are able to obtain

employment have been erected near the towns of Picton and Blenheim, and to these immigrants are transferred immediately on landing, being supplied with comfortable board and lodging free of cost. It is seldom, however, that any have occasion to remain at these depôts more than two or three days.

Immigrants should bring out with them as little baggage as possible. Articles of household use will not be found very much more costly here than in England, and much of what might be considered a proper outfit before leaving Home, would probably be found unsuitable to the requirements of this country and to the climate; added to which, the cost of removal from place to place, until a final settling down is effected, makes it undoubtedly more desirable for new comers to bring out the money in their pockets than a quantity of goods which may prove of little use. In purchasing articles of clothing for their outfit, intending emigrants should bear in mind that the climate of this Province is, in summer, not unlike that of the Isle of Wight, and in winter somewhat warmer.

## PROVINCE OF NELSON.

THE success which attended the first colonizing effort of the New Zealand Company, in forming the settlement of Wellington in 1839, induced that body, in the early part of 1841, to bring out the scheme of a second settlement, to be named after England's greatest naval hero, Nelson. It was proposed that this should consist of 1,000 allotments, each to comprise 50 acres of suburban and 150 acres of rural land, to

be sold at 20s. per acre, and that a town acre should be given with each allotment. It was further agreed that 100 allotments should be added as reserves for Natives, so that the entire settlement should consist of 221,100 acres, which were expected to realize £300,000.

The money to be derived from the sale of the lands was thus appropriated :—

To emigration .....	£150,000	
To defray expenses in selecting and establishing the settlement	50,000	
Public purposes, for rendering the settlement commodious and attractive :—		
To religious uses and endowments .....	£15,000	£
To establishment of a college.....	15,000	
To encouragement of steam navigation .....	20,000	
	50,000	
The Company for its expenses and profits .....	50,000	
	£300,000	

As very little about New Zealand was known in England at that time, no site could be assigned to the settlement, and Captain Arthur Wakefield, a distinguished naval officer, and a man eminently fitted for the task (brother of Colonel William Wakefield, the Company's principal agent at Wellington), was appointed to lead the preliminary expedition, select a site, and represent the Company at Nelson when the settlement should be formed. This expedition, consisting of a party of surveyors and about seventy labourers (mostly young married men, whose wives it was arranged should follow them a short time afterwards), left the Thames at the end of April, 1841, in two barques, the *Whitby* and *Will Watch*, accompanied by the brig *Arrow*, laden with stores, and the three vessels arrived at Wellington at the end of the following September.

When Captain Wakefield took his departure, it was generally supposed in England that Port Cooper, and the country afterwards selected for the settlement of Canterbury, would be selected as the site for Nelson.

A French whaler had some time before visited Port Cooper, and the master, on returning home, gave such a favourable report of the adjacent country—which he described as capable of maintaining a Paris and a London—as to leave no doubt of its suitability for settlement. It was Captain Wakefield's intention, after consulting with his brother at Wellington, to have proceeded at once to Port Cooper, and planted the settlement of which he was the leader on the plains spoken of by the French whaling master. Captain Hobson, R.N., who had some time before come out as Governor of the Colony, was opposed to this. The territory which the New Zealand Company was supposed to have acquired and were free to settle, did not quite extend to Port Cooper, and it was only within some stated degrees of latitude that the British Government were supposed to have sanctioned the Company's colonizing proceedings. This restriction had been verbally waived by Lord John Russell, Secretary of State for the Colonies, before Captain Wakefield left England; but Captain Hobson, who wanted the Nelson settlement to be planted a little north of Auckland, where he offered an insufficient site for it, obstinately opposed Captain Wakefield settling at the spot which that officer considered the most eligible for his purpose.

This conduct of the Governor compelled the leader of the expedition to look elsewhere than the broad grassy plains south of the Kalkoura mountains for a site for

Nelson; and finding in Wellington a Captain Moore (master of a small trading vessel), who reported that Blind Bay possessed all the requirements needed, Captain Wakefield engaged his services to pilot him to the spot, and the three vessels crossed Cook Strait, and anchored in Astrolabe Road, on the western side of Blind Bay, about the middle of October. Here was a roadstead capable of affording complete shelter to a few ships, but no land suitable for settlement, nor even a site for a town. About four miles lower down the bay was a small cove, named Kaiteriteri, which would furnish a few acres of land suitable for building sites, and afford shelter to a small class of coasters; and as the level country on the north side of the Motueka River could be reached from this spot, Captain Wakefield was disposed to lay out a town in quarter-acre allotments at Kaiteriteri, with Astrolabe as the anchorage for large vessels. A hasty examination of the bay gave no expectation of its furnishing a better site, and the expected early arrival of settlers from England rendered promptitude of action necessary.

If land in sufficient quantity for the settlement, and of fair quality, could have been found in the neighbourhood of Motueka, it is not improbable that Captain Wakefield would have put up with the inconvenience of two harbours and a small township; but when the exploring parties which had been sent out to examine the country returned, and reported unfavourably of its extent and capabilities, he determined to proceed to Port Cooper, to plant the settlement there in defiance of the Governor, and justify himself by the necessity of the case. But before carrying this resolution into execution, he thought it prudent to thoroughly satisfy himself that Blind Bay afforded no spot where the Nelson settlement could advantageously be planted. A Deal pilot boat, which had been brought out by the expedition, was placed in charge of Mr. Cross (the present harbour-master of Nelson), who was ordered to proceed to Pepin Island, on the east side of the bay, follow down the coast, and examine carefully every opening that presented itself. An imperfect description of the present harbour of Nelson had been given to Captain Wakefield by a Native chief from Motueka, who visited his vessels, and this made him more desirous not to leave the bay only half explored. A short distance below Pepin Island, Mr. Cross observed the long low spit, now called the Boulder Bank, which forms the harbour, and as he sailed along was able, by standing up in



the boat, to see water inside. Proceeding down its edge and crossing the bar, he at length reached the termination of the Boulder Bank, and found a splendid deep-water basin inside, capable of accommodating a large number of vessels. Although the harbour thus discovered was tidal, it possessed many great advantages. The shelter was perfect, there was good holding ground, and a great rise and fall of tide, which gave singular facilities for laying vessels on shore and cleaning their bottoms. This discovery was made on the 5th of November, and Mr. Cross returned immediately to Astrolabe. Captain Wakefield lost no time in crossing the bay, and after examining the harbour, decided on making it the Port of Nelson, and to abandon all idea of proceeding to Port Cooper. Adjoining the harbour was an admirable site for a town—a flat of about 700 acres of good dry land, and about the same quantity of low hills. It was well watered by two small streams, and was sheltered from the southward, but open to the north, facing the sea, and possessed an ample supply of timber for immediate requirements. It had the additional recommendation of easy communication with a considerable tract of land of fair quality. These were advantages which pre-eminently adapted the spot for settlement, and, together with its exceptionally fine climate, have rendered Nelson by common consent the most charming place of residence in New Zealand.

Like many other young colonial settlements, Nelson had its infantile troubles. The New Zealand Company, as an inducement to the working classes to go out to a country of which at that time little was known in England, except as being inhabited by a race of ferocious and warlike savages, promised to find well-paid employment for all labourers who would emigrate thither, without any restrictions as to duration. As a natural consequence, the Company monopolized all the labour they imported; and as there was no stipulation of a fair day's work for a fair day's wages, the "Company's stroke" became proverbial. Private capitalists found themselves unable to compete with the Company in the labour market, and thus but little was done in the way of legitimate settlement. This was a state of things which could not last. The Company endeavoured to get the labourers off their hands by giving liberal encouragement to them to settle on the land and become cottier farmers; and afterwards, by placing all their labourers on piece-work and paying them full wages for half work, sought to encourage them to cultivate their

farms and become independent of employers. The crisis which all thinking persons had foreseen came at last. After this fostering treatment had been pursued for the greater part of a year, instructions were received by the Company's agent to discharge the whole of the labourers at once, and this of necessity had to be done. Then ensued a time of real trial. The men who had been industrious and provident got over the difficulty of their new position without sustaining any very severe privations, but the indolent and improvident were reduced to very severe straits, some families being compelled to dig up and eat their seed potatoes to escape actual starvation. A large re-emigration took place to other colonies, principally to South Australia; but severely as the pinch was felt at the time, it was afterwards universally admitted that the lesson of self-dependence it taught was highly salutary, and that it imparted healthy life to the settlement.

But long before the New Zealand Company ceased operations in Nelson, a calamity of another kind befell the settlement. It was soon discovered, when surveys were commenced, that the land required for the Nelson scheme could not be obtained within the limits of Blind Bay, and exploring parties were sent out in search of more country. Following up a series of valleys which have their drainage in Blind Bay, one party of explorers turned the mountain range on the east side, and found their way into the head of the Wairau Valley, which they followed down for fifty miles to the sea, where the river debouches into Cloudy Bay, facing Wellington Heads in Cook Strait. Here was a district capable of furnishing all the land required, and surveyors were at once engaged to lay it off in sections. Although Colonel Wakefield had purchased, as he believed, the district of Wairau twice over, Rauaparaha and Rangihaeata, the two chiefs who claimed it in right of conquest, disputed the sale; and when the surveyors were about to commence, those chiefs, with a strong body of followers, crossed Cook Strait in canoes from the neighbourhood of Kapiti, a small island on the north-eastern side of the strait, where they resided, and warned the surveyors not to proceed with their work. They also burned the survey pegs and tent poles, but did no violence to the men or their property. When intelligence of this reached Nelson, the Company's agent, supported by Mr. H. A. Thompson, Police Magistrate, swore in about seventy special constables, and the Government brig being in Nelson at the



time, those gentlemen induced the captain to convey the whole party to the Wairau, nothing doubting but that before so imposing a force, armed with old flint firelocks, the Maories would be cowed, and the chiefs submit to be taken on board the brig, and have their offence investigated by the Magistrates. If the force had been under the sole command of Captain Wakefield, a man of singular tact and courage, it is probable that an amicable settlement would have been come to, for no outrage had been committed on the settlers up to that time, the Natives holding the power of the white man in almost superstitious veneration. Unfortunately, the representative of the Government, Mr. Thompson, was a man of most excitable temperament, and when Rauparaha and his followers were found at the entrance of the Tua Marina Valley (through which the railway from Blenheim to Picton is now being constructed), Mr. Thompson, by his threats and demeanour, so excited the Natives that a collision ensued, and the Europeans—mostly labouring men, unaccustomed to the use of fire-arms, and without organization—were no match for born warriors. It was always a disputed point which party commenced the fray, but according to the evidence afterwards taken by the Magistrates in Nelson, the first shot came from the Maoris, and was immediately replied to by a shot from one of our men, which killed the wife of Rangihaeata, who was also a daughter of Rauparaha. The firing then became general on both sides, although no order to fire was given by the leaders of the Europeans, and Captain Wakefield ordered his men to cease as soon as he could make himself heard. The Europeans, who had kept together, retreated up the spur of the hill at the entrance to the Tua Marina Valley, where they were overtaken by the Natives, and, having thrown down their arms, the whole party were tomahawked. Added to the men who had been shot, the fray cost the infant settlement twenty-two lives, including several of its leading men; and this untoward occurrence utterly destroyed the prestige of the Europeans in New Zealand. Evidence was afterwards obtained, which showed that on the first discharge of the guns, the Natives were so alarmed that they were on the point of seeking safety in flight, having taken up a position from which they could reach the head of Queen Charlotte Sound by an intricate Native path, and by the aid of canoes obtained from their countrymen, could have recrossed the Strait to a place of refuge. But the untrained men, of

which the English party was mainly composed, as soon as firing commenced (with a few exceptions), ran from the scene. This emboldened the Natives, who thereupon abandoned their intended retreat to Waitohi, and pursued the Europeans. Had Captain Wakefield possessed a few men properly armed and disciplined, many valuable lives might have been saved, as it is not likely a man of his cool judgment would have surrendered to savages had he been properly supported. Had no collision taken place at Wairau, it is not likely bloodshed between the races would have been long averted. Some other cause of quarrel must sooner or later have arisen, and force been resorted to; but nothing more deplorable could have happened than what occurred at Massacre Hill, as the spot is still called, where the graves of the victims are marked by a small monument.

The intelligence of this sad calamity was received in Nelson with grief and consternation. The settlers were without arms or organization, nor was there any force in the country to afford them protection. For several succeeding months there was constant apprehension of danger; and when disturbances broke out in the North Island, at the Bay of Islands, at the Hutt, at Wanganui, and elsewhere, the sense of insecurity increased. Happily, no serious disturbance arose, although the Natives residing at a place about fifteen miles from the town, were at one time troublesome; but the danger passed away, and the Wairau massacre, which occurred more than thirty years ago, was the first and last collision in the South Island of New Zealand between the Natives and settlers.

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF NELSON.

WHEN New Zealand was divided into six Provinces, the northern portion of the Southern Island was constituted the Province of Nelson, the boundary between it and Canterbury being the River Hurunui on the east and the River Grey on the west side. The general feature of the country is rugged and mountainous, more so than any of the other Provinces of equal area. The prevailing scenery is bold and grand, the soil in many of the valleys exceedingly rich and fertile, and the climate soft and genial. The largest tracts of land adapted for settlement were the valley of the Waima in Blind Bay, the Wairau Valley and country adjacent, and that portion of the Province bordering on Canterbury and named Amuri.

Owing to the inaccessible character of the intervening country, little was known in Nelson of the Amuri district in the early days of the Province, and a country admirably adapted for settlement, and capable of carrying a large agricultural population, was suffered, under an ill-advised system of cheap land, to become the property of a few sheep-farmers at the small cost of 5s. to 10s. per acre. The same thing occurred in the Wairau on a smaller scale; but the latter district was taken from Nelson in the year 1858, and formed into a separate Province, to which was given the name of Marlborough.

Nelson as it now exists, is divided into three districts, varying widely in character, which it will be convenient to notice separately.

*The Blind Bay District.*—The soil in Blind Bay is chiefly of a light character, and before the country was settled, was mostly covered with fern. In the swampy bottoms, which grew flax and raupo, the soil was a rich vegetable mould; while the forest lands, except the hill country, which grew only black birch, had a soil chiefly of rich loam. The first crops grown on the fern land were very unsatisfactory, as nothing was done to sweeten it, after breaking up, before sowing. When the necessity of fallowing fern land came to be understood, the crops were far more satisfactory, and from indifferent-looking land there were sometimes got from fifty to sixty bushels of wheat to the acre. The flax and timber land yielded well until worn out by incessant cropping. To the high price of labour may be charged much of the "bad" farming which, as a rule, has been general in Nelson. Cottier farmers are not the best husbandmen, and a large proportion of the land in Nelson is in the hands of men of that class. Yet it is easy to point out numerous thriving settlers, who themselves, or their fathers thirty years ago, were not possessed of a shilling, who have now a freehold estate of from 100 to 300 acres, with comfortable homestead, are dairying numerous cows, rearing choice sheep, growing good crops of corn, and otherwise yearly adding to their worldly wealth, and all the while enjoying abundance of the necessaries and many of the luxuries of life. Although Blind Bay does not equal some of the other agricultural districts of New Zealand, the fine climate it enjoys, and its comparative immunity from storms and floods, compensate for many of its seeming disadvantages. Hops have been grown in Nelson with considerable success, and the cultivation is rapidly

extending, while all kinds of fruits known in England grow in the greatest profusion.

Blind Bay is rich in minerals, particularly in gold, coal, and iron, and possesses abundance of excellent limestone. It was here that gold was first discovered in New Zealand in 1856, and the extent and richness of the field was favourably reported on by Dr. Hochstetter, the eminent geologist attached to the Austrian "Novara" surveying expedition.

Besides the city of Nelson, there are several centres of population in Blind Bay. Richmond, eight miles from Nelson, is a village of importance in the agricultural district of Waimea; Motueka, in the district of that name, on the western side of the bay, is another; Collingwood, the town at the mouth of the Aorere River, in the north-east corner of Massacre Bay, was a place of considerable importance some years ago, when gold mining was actively pursued there; but although less so now, it is likely soon to revive in prosperity, stimulated by a more permanent industry than gold digging—the erection of iron-works, and the working of the valuable coal measures which exist there.

2. *The West Coast District.*—This district consists of the two large valleys of the Buller and Grey, and their numerous tributaries, and some smaller valleys which have outlet to the sea. The great mountain chain which commences at Cape Farewell, at the extreme north, and runs south the whole length of the Island, is only broken through in the Province of Nelson by the Rivers Buller and Grey. The valley of the Buller has valuable land in places, particularly on what is called the Four River Plain, between the Matakita and Marina Rivers, as also up the valleys of those rivers, and in the valley of the Inangahua lower down. Those valleys are all on the south side of the Buller; but there is also a considerable extent of available land in valleys on the north side. The valley of the Grey is more open, and the extent of land adapted for cultivation much greater, than in the basin of the Buller; but the general features of the country are the same. Owing to the rainfall on the western being greater than it is on the eastern seaboard, vegetation is richer; and there can be no doubt that a few years hence many of the hill-sides will be clear of timber, and be growing grass and feeding stock in great numbers. The whole of this district is one vast gold-field, and for the last seven years it has given employment to thousands of miners, and the only reason why the number has not been



greater, is the expense of living in remote places, owing to the absence of roads. This drawback is now being fast removed, and within a year or two a coach will run from Nelson to Greymouth, traversing the Buller for nearly its whole length, the valleys of Inangahua and Little Grey, and the level portion of the main Grey Valley.

Coal of the best quality has been found in several spots both in the Buller and Grey basins. The mine at Brunner, only a few miles from the mouth of the Grey, has been worked for some time; and now that a railway will shortly deliver the coal at the port, a considerable export may be looked for. Other minerals have been found—silver, lead, copper, and iron; and there is reason to believe that these valleys will, at no distant day, give employment to a very large mining population. Besides the township of Westport, at the mouth of the Buller, and the small township of Cobden, at the mouth of the Grey, several towns exist on the Nelson Southwest Gold Fields. Charleston, on the coast, about twenty miles south of Westport, and Brighton, some twelve miles further south; Ahaura, on the Grey; Reefton, near the head of the Inangahua; and a township at the Lyell, on the Buller, are the principal. Each of these, except Cobden, has its local newspaper.

Several of the small navigable rivers north of Westport, previously referred to, might be settled upon to advantage; and as gold and coal are everywhere present, farming and mining might in several spots be combined with advantage. From Ngakawau, about eighteen miles from Westport, there is likely soon to be a large coal export, carried on by means of small coasting vessels, and by a railway along the beach to Westport. The Buller River affords by far the best harbour on the West Coast north of Milford Sound, and the coal seams at Ngakawau are of the most promising description.

3. *The Amuri District.*—This is, to a great extent, a limestone country, covered with rich grass, and is less mountainous than Blind Bay and the Western District, possessing, as it does, several large tracts of comparatively flat land. Had the Amuri possessed a harbour of any kind, it would have afforded one of the best sites in New Zealand for a settlement, but wanting this, the whole country fell into the hands of stockholders. When the North Canterbury Railway has been extended to the Amuri, as sooner or later it will be, the sheep-farmers of the district will find it to their interest to lease or sell portions of their

runs for farms, and Amuri will then contribute largely to the importance of Nelson as a grain-growing Province. At present, Amuri is merely a pastoral district, and its only township is that of Waiau, on the river of that name. A Magistrate's Court is held there at intervals, and it has a telegraph station, but has few of the other characteristics of a town, or even a village.

The Buller and Grey valleys, now being opened by roads, possess some fine land, equal to the average of what is to be met with in most parts of the Colony. A carriage of fifty to seventy miles to a port is undoubtedly a drawback, but there are growing markets near at hand among the miners for most kinds of country produce, and the carriage of imported articles for consumption amounts to little where the land is fertile, and the main necessaries of life can be raised at home. Escaped from the hard living and prospectless life of Great Britain, and settled in the Buller or Grey valleys, in the full enjoyment of plenty and independence, labouring men would readily appreciate the exchange they had made, even should it be not altogether free from slight drawbacks. As the whole district is a gold field, a choice of employment will always be open to a settler, and the work of clearing the land and sowing crops may be varied by engaging in that of gold mining. The practical character of some of the settlers in these districts has been shown by women who had no cradles requiring their attention within doors, rocking cradles for their husbands engaged in seeking gold. On the coast north of the Buller River exist several spots where a few families could locate themselves with advantage, within reach of small harbours capable of being entered by coasting craft.

The Crown lands in the Province are disposed of by sale or lease under "The Nelson Waste Lands Act, 1863," "The Crown Lands (Nelson) Leasing Act 1867," and Amendment Acts, 1871, 1872, and 1873, and "The Gold Fields Act, 1866," and amendments.

Under "The Nelson Waste Lands Act, 1863," the sale of land is by auction, thus:—For town, suburban, and mineral lands, at an upset price fixed by the Waste Lands Board. For rural land, at an upset price also fixed by the Board, but varying from 5s. to 40s. an acre. Rural land can, however, be purchased on application, without auction, at 40s. an acre.

Under the Leasing Acts specified above, rural lands can also be taken thus:—Under the Act of 1867, in quantities of not less than 50 and not more than 10,000 acres;





RIVER GREY, FROM GREYMOUTH.

rental, 5 per cent. on assessed value of the land as fixed by the Waste Lands Board, averaging 7s. Term, fourteen years. Lease renewable for another fourteen years at double the previous rent. A lessee may, however, purchase land held under lease at any time during term, at an assessed price to be fixed by the Board, at date of application for purchase, irrespective of improvements.

Under the Amendment Acts of 1871 and 1872, the area leased must not be less than 50 acres nor more than 200 acres; the rental 10 per cent. upon value, as assessed by the Board, of not less than 7s. an acre; such rental to be duly paid for the term of fourteen years, at the expiration of which the lessee will be entitled to a Crown grant of the land.

Under the Gold Fields Acts, agricultural leases are issued for any quantity of land not exceeding 200 acres, at a rental of not exceeding 2s. 6d. an acre. The term is for seven years, but after three years' occupation, and the improvement of two-thirds of the land included in the lease, the lessee may purchase at a price to be fixed by the Waste Lands Board; or if the lessee holds lease till expiration of said term, he may at his option have lease renewed for another seven years at same rental; and at expiration of this second term, he is entitled to a Crown grant for the land.

Although no considerable number of farms are at any time in the market, some are generally to be met with; also unimproved land owned by private individuals. Numerous settlers have from time to time been induced to purchase land from the Government, without possessing the necessary capital to work it. In many of these cases, the purchase money was raised by mortgaging their previously acquired freeholds, and as their new purchases furnish no returns, they are forced to sell either one or other of their properties to meet the interest charges. To persons possessed of a little money, opportunities frequently offer of acquiring a snug farm at a reasonable cost. The opportunities of renting farms occur less frequently, although they occasionally arise. Few persons are found willing to hire farms, unless with a right of purchase at a stated price, and this arises out of the natural objection to expend money and labour in improving the property of others instead of a man's own, or what he may make such.

The chief articles of production in Nelson are cereals of all kinds; potatoes, hops, dairy produce; fruits of all descriptions such as are grown in England; wool,

woollen cloth, leather, flax, rope, ale and porter, wines from the grape and other fruits, cider, &c. The value of most of these articles is regulated by the price obtained in other Provinces and in neighbouring markets. Wine from the grape, resembling good still hock, has only yet been manufactured in small quantities, but is of good quality.

Fruit wines, such as cherry, currant, peach, &c., are made in large quantities, and meet with a ready sale at 8s. per gallon. Hops, which are extensively cultivated, bring from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per pound. The cloth manufactured is chiefly a superior kind of tweed, and sells at 6s. per yard. Nelson has long been known for the excellence of its ales and porter, as the climate is particularly well adapted for brewing. These are the chief articles of present manufacture, and they are all susceptible of extension.

Besides the large scope which Nelson offers for mining pursuits and iron manufactures, there are several lesser industries which merit attention. The manufacture of common pottery for general household purposes and for containing preserved fruits, would, if undertaken, rapidly grow into a thriving pursuit. Preserving of fruit and the manufacture of fruit jams, might be carried on with the greatest advantage, as fruit trees of all kinds thrive admirably. Encouragement should also be given to the planting of the mulberry, as it can scarcely be doubted that the rearing of silkworms, under skilled direction, might be made a source of great wealth to the community. The lesser manufactures of leather, soap, candles, and several others, have been successfully tried, but have not grown into large dimensions through want of the necessary capital to compete with imported articles. An excellent paint produced from hematite iron ore is now getting into great demand, and promises to become a local industry of considerable importance; and there are several others of minor value, not worthy, perhaps, of special mention. Nelson cheese has a good character, and cheese dairying, where the land is suitable, is one of the best of country pursuits. The steady demand which exists in Nelson for fruit, poultry, and dairy provisions, for the gold fields districts, is highly beneficial to the producers.

Most of the common woods of the country are to be met with in Nelson; and besides pine trees of all kinds—red, white, and yellow—rimu, totara, the different varieties of birch, and hinu (valuable for its bark), there are a number of others which have



little mercantile value. A good deal of pine timber which was easy of access has been cut for local building purposes and for exportation; but large forests of birch remain untouched. This is a valuable wood if cut at the proper season, and is well adapted for sleepers for railways, staves for casks, fencing, and like objects. When the projected railway penetrates the interior of the country, thousands of acres of birch forest, which now are regarded as next to worthless, will acquire considerable value. In the valley of Takaka, on the western side of Blind Bay, there is a large extent of fine forest land, the timber being of the most valuable kinds; but the expense of carting it to the mouth of the river for shipment has hitherto deterred persons from erecting saw-mills there. This source of wealth is not longer to lie idle; and instead of clearing land by burning off valuable timber, saw-mills are being erected, which will leave only the stumps and branches for the cultivator to clear.

As no capital worth speaking of has hitherto been embarked in manufactures in Nelson, what is being done is the slow growth of small individual efforts, and there is no demand for skilled manufacturing labour sufficient to justify special immigration. The woollen factory which has existed in Nelson for the last twenty-five years, and been so great a success, is extending its operations and importing new machinery; but the employment afforded by this establishment is very limited.

No Provincial public works of magnitude are now in progress, but the demand for several is so urgent that means for their early construction will have soon to be found.

The great wealth of Nelson lies in her minerals, surpassing in this, it is believed, any other part of the Colony. Unlimited beds of the very finest iron ore, coal, and limestone are met with in spots highly favourable to the establishment of iron works, which before long cannot fail to become a great industry in Nelson, and are now engaging the attention of wealthy capitalists from Australia. The superiority of many of the Nelson coal measures over those of Newcastle, and others in New South Wales, being indisputable, capital has at length come forward to develop them, and a brisk coal trade may be expected to spring up before long. The success which must attend these enterprises will call forth others, and stimulate every branch of mining industry and numerous mechanical pursuits, so that a large and increasing demand for mechanical

labour of almost every description may be expected to arise at no distant day.

The demand for coal and iron is largely on the increase in every part of the world, and as the possession of these products has invariably advanced the material prosperity of the spots where they exist and been found capable of being worked to advantage, it is but reasonable to apply to New Zealand the rule which has worked uniformly in every other part of the world. A large population engaged in mining and mechanical pursuits, must necessarily be great consumers of agricultural and dairy produce, and benefit all other classes.\*

Prices of stock vary greatly according to seasons, but the following may be taken as the average:—Dairy cows, from £5 to £8; working bullocks, £16 to £20 per pair; mixed cattle, about £4 to £5 each; cart horses, £15 to £30 each; hackneys, £10 to £30; sheep, fair wethers, 10s. to 12s.; mixed flocks, 5s. to 7s.

The price of provisions also fluctuates greatly, and quotations at one season of the year differ greatly from those of another. The following are intended to represent the average:—

Flour, per ton ...	£13 to £15.
Potatoes, per ton ...	£3. 10s. to £5.
Beef, per lb. ...	3d. to 6d.
Mutton, per lb. ...	3d. to 5d.
Pork, per lb. ...	5d. to 6d.
Bacon, per lb. ...	7d. to 10d.
Ham, per lb. ...	9d. to 10d.
Eggs, per dozen ...	9d. to 1s. 3d.
Butter, fresh, per lb. ...	8d. to 1s. 3d.
Cheese, per lb. ...	8d. to 1s.
Bread, per 2-lb. loaf ...	3d. to 4d.
Geese, each ...	5s. to 7s.
Turkeys, each ...	3s. 6d. to 5s.
Fowls, per pair ...	2s. 6d. to 3s.
Ducks, per pair ...	4s. to 5s. 6d.
Onions, per lb. ...	2d. to 3d.
Ale, per hhd. ...	£6.
Ale, per gallon ...	2s. 6d.
Ale, per dozen ...	8s.
Hops, per lb. ...	2s. to 2s. 6d. *

\* At an Industrial Exhibition held in the City of Nelson in November, 1878, the exhibits of natural products were numerous and most valuable:—Coal, in large blocks, from different localities, of superior quality; iron ore, and samples of pig and bar iron manufactured therefrom; numerous preparations from chrome ore; specimens of ores of lead and copper; and a rich exhibit of gold, alluvial and in quartz. No one could contemplate these proofs of mineral wealth, and doubt the future material prosperity of the country which furnished them.



Nelson is the seat of a Bishop, and the affairs of the Church are regulated by a Synod (which meets annually) composed of the resident clergy and elected lay members. Other Christian bodies have their individual organization, as in other parts of New Zealand. The Province of Nelson forms part of the Roman Catholic see of Wellington.

Good farm hands and useful country mechanics are the labourers most in request in Nelson. Female servants are in great demand, and if of a respectable class, a large number would easily find situations.

Wages for country labourers are from £30 to £50 a year, and board and lodging, with extra allowance during harvest; while job labour is paid 5s. to 8s. a day, without keep. Mechanics in town get from 8s. to 10s. a day. In the mining districts, labour is considerably dearer, say, from 20 to 30 per cent., or even more.

Rations, as a rule, are not given in Nelson; men either keep themselves out of their wages, or are fed at the expense of their employers. On some of the larger sheep-stations, a cook contracts with the employer to feed the workmen at so much a day each, the employer engaging to furnish him with all necessary articles of living at stated prices.

Nelson was the first Province in New Zealand to frame and bring into operation a system of popular education. So early as 1853, in the first session of the Provincial Council, a member moved for the appointment of a Select Committee, "To investigate the question of public education, to ascertain existing deficiencies, and suggest such a plan of general education as will best meet the public requirements." This led, in the following session, to the passing of an Act authorizing the Superintendent to appoint a Commission to take evidence and report on the whole question of public education. The Commission was composed of five gentlemen, who were supposed to represent diverse religious opinions; and their report recommended the establishment of free public schools throughout the Province, to be maintained by a rate of £1 a year imposed on all householders, a rate of 5s. a year for every child (not exceeding four in number in one family) between the ages of five and fourteen, and by votes in aid from the Provincial Treasury. The report further recommended that the management of the schools should be placed under Local Committees, elected by the ratepayers, such Local Committees to be represented at a Central Board, which should

possess a general controlling power; and that religious instruction, when given, should be free from all controversial character, and be imparted at such times that parents objecting might be able to withdraw their children from the schools at the time it was given. Mr. Weld (now Governor of Western Australia), who represented the Roman Catholic body, only attended the two first meetings of the Commission, and then addressed a letter to the Chairman, in which he stated that his private affairs precluded him from being present at their further deliberations, and that he perceived that he should not be able to concur in the report they would probably make. Mr. Weld suggested that instead of the Government establishing schools, it should assist all schools which gave a certain amount of secular instruction to the satisfaction of a Government Inspector. An Act, framed upon the report of the Commissioners, was passed by the Provincial Council in the session of 1855, and, with some slight modifying, has worked satisfactorily ever since. The schools established under this Act are well attended, and the education given in them is of the very best character. The annual grant, by the Provincial Council, of two scholarships, which entitle successful competitors to a free education at Nelson College, has worked beneficially. Education in these public schools is not confined to boys, girls being equally well instructed.

Nelson College is an institution where the higher branches of education are taught. It is open to all boys at a low scale of fees, and has accommodation for about forty boarders. In the competitive examinations for Colonial University honours, which have taken place during the last two years, the candidates from Nelson College greatly distinguished themselves.

Building Societies have been very successful in Nelson. Two, on the terminable system, which numbered together 500 members, have worked out. About one-third of the contributors devoted their savings to acquiring land and houses; while the object of the remainder appeared to be to obtain a safe investment for their savings which should bring them a high rate of interest. A third Society, on the permanent principle, was also established, and continues in a flourishing state. During the twelve years it has existed, 1,000 members have contributed to its funds, which, in the aggregate, have amounted to about £180,000. One-third of these contributors have invested their savings in houses and farms.

The charitable institutions which exist are maintained by the Provincial Government, and consist of an admirable hospital (capable of accommodating sixty patients), lunatic asylum (a new building is now in course of erection), homes for destitute poor, and an orphanage for children. These institutions are all excellently managed and liberally supported; and in succouring the sick, the infirm, and the distressed, the Province is behind none in the Colony.

The rent in town of neat cottages of three rooms is about 5s. per week, and £30 to £50 a year for houses of four and six rooms. The cost of erecting a neat wooden cottage of four or five rooms, either in town or country, is from £130 to £150.

Any account of the Province of Nelson would be incomplete without a notice of the exceptionally fine climate enjoyed by Blind Bay, where the City of Nelson and the older settled districts are situate. Not only has it a greater amount of fine weather than any other spot in New Zealand, but it escapes almost completely the south-east and north-west gales which blow so frequently through Cook Strait and on most parts of the coast. The thermometer seldom rises to 80° in summer, and the heat is nearly always tempered by a refreshing breeze from the sea; while in winter it rarely falls below 30°. The latter season is generally regarded as the most enjoyable portion of the year; bright cloudless skies, a bracing atmosphere, and a soft gentle wind being its prevailing character. The scenery of Blind Bay is universally admitted to be most pleasing. Rugged, snow-clad mountains in the background, enclosing a large and fertile valley, thickly

studded with comfortable homesteads, washed by the placid waters of the bay, make up a picture which no written description can adequately portray. From its earliest settlement, Nelson set an example to most of the other towns of the Colony, in making provision for the convenience and well-being of its inhabitants. In self-imposed taxation for making and maintaining its streets and roads, for city drainage and obtaining a noble supply of water, and in establishing an admirable system of public education, it took precedence of all other places. Nor has it been backward in other matters, which, though small in themselves, contribute largely to the enjoyment of life. The woods and fields are alive with English song-birds, the skylark in particular being in greater numbers than in any district in England. The sportsman, in the proper season, can fill his game-bag with pheasants and quail within sight of town; and the time is not remote when deer-stalking may also be followed, as both fallow and red deer have been turned out and are becoming numerous. Hares have been introduced, while rabbits, in places, are in such numbers as to have become almost a pest. Something also has been done towards stocking the rivers with trout, and ponds with perch; and the fisherman can always be assured of sport, if he will seek it, in the rivers, creeks, and bays, as excellent fish of numerous kinds abound on all parts of the coast.

To families in easy circumstances, who desire a fine climate, with English society, and the advantage of being able to get for their children a good education, Nelson offers singular attractions.

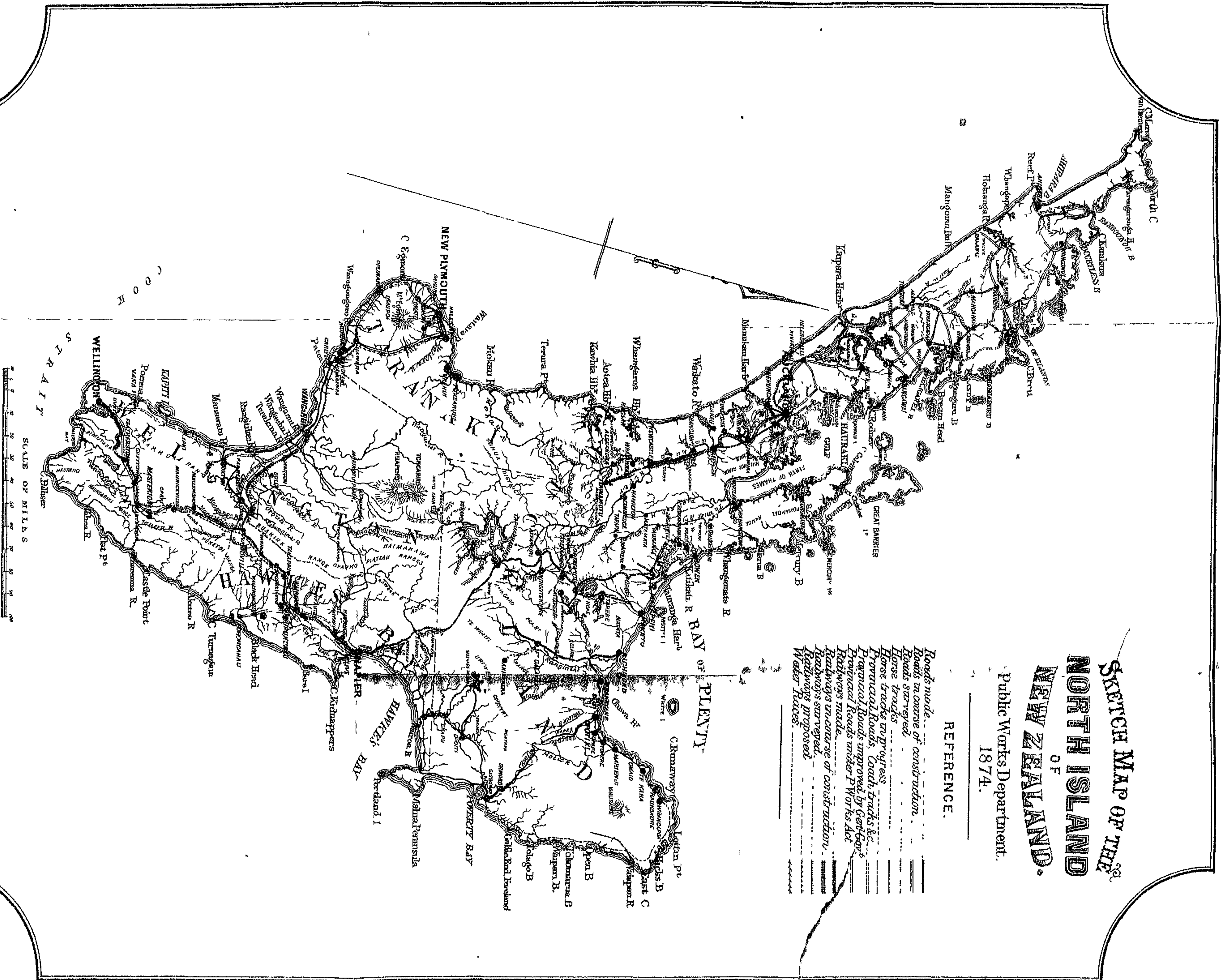


# SKETCH MAP OF THE NORTH ISLAND OF NEW ZEALAND.

Public Works Department.  
1874.

## REFERENCE.

- Roads made. ————
- Roads in course of construction. - - - - -
- Roads surveyed. . . . .
- Horse tracks. . . . .
- Horse tracks in progress. . . . .
- Portugal Roads. Coach tracks &c. . . . .
- Portugal Roads improved by Government. . . . .
- Portugal Roads under P. Works Act. . . . .
- Railways made. ————
- Railways in course of construction. - - - - -
- Railways surveyed. . . . .
- Railways proposed. . . . .
- Water Races. . . . .





## PROVINCE OF WELLINGTON.

### EARLY HISTORY OF THE PROVINCE.

**W**ELLINGTON was the first settlement in New Zealand, and was founded in 1840 by the New Zealand Company, an association formed in London for the purpose of carrying on colonizing operations in this Colony. The first emigrant ship, the *Aurora*, anchored in Port Nicholson on the 22nd January of that year.

Until 1841 New Zealand was a dependency of New South Wales, but in that year it was made an independent Colony, and in January, 1848, was divided into two Provinces, New Ulster and New Munster; the first comprising the northern portion of the North Island, and the second, the remaining portion of the North and the whole of the Middle Island. What is now the Wellington Province was included in New Munster. Sir George Grey was then Governor of the Colony, and a Lieutenant-Governor, Edward John Eyre, Esq., resided in Wellington. Under the New Constitution Act, the first elections took place in 1853, when Dr. Featherston was chosen Superintendent, which office he retained by successive re-elections until April, 1871, when he resigned it in order to undertake the duties of Agent-General of the Colony in London, being succeeded in the superintendency by the Hon. William Fitzherbert, who was re-elected in January, 1873. Dr. Featherston met the first Council on the 28th October, 1853, and in his opening speech expressed his intention of adopting the system of responsible government in the conduct of the affairs of the Province, and accordingly chose an executive on that principle. He stated that of the 10,502,000 acres of which the Province then consisted (Hawke Bay forming part of the Province at that time), the Native title had already been extinguished over 2,015,000, of which 235,000 acres had been alienated, leaving a balance of 1,780,000 acres open to purchase, which would be immediately increased to 3,000,000 acres, arrangements having been made for the purchase of other blocks in Hawke Bay and the Wairarapa. His Honour estimated the revenue for the year ending 30th September, 1854, at £18,000, of which £8,500 would be available for public works.

In opening the session of the Provincial Council in 1873, the Superintendent estimated the income for the financial year ending 31st March, 1874, at £85,942, of which £54,968 was proposed to be expended on public works.

### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE WELLINGTON PROVINCE.

Looking at the map of the North Island, it will be seen that the Province of Wellington forms its southern portion, and is separated from the Province of Auckland on the north by the 39th parallel of south latitude; from Taranaki on the north-west by the north-easterly bend of the Wanganui River, and by a line stretching from the southern angle of that bend to the mouth of the Patea River. From Hawke Bay on the east it is divided by a line in the direction of the crest of the Ruahine Range, reaching from the 39th parallel of south latitude to the southerly extremity of the range at the Manawatu Gorge; and from the same Province on the south by a line drawn from the Manawatu Gorge across the Puketoi hills to the mouth of the Waimate River on the East Coast. It is bounded on the west by Cook Strait, which also divides its southern extremity from the north-eastern portion of the Marlborough Province, in the Middle Island.

The Wellington Province contains an area of 7,200,000 acres. Its southern coast line, extending from Sinclair Head to Cape Palliser, includes Palliser Bay and the harbour of Port Nicholson, stretching from the shores of which is the fertile valley of the Hutt, divided by mountain ranges from the open country of the West Coast on one side, and the Wairarapa Plains on the other.

*The City and Port of Wellington.*—The city of Wellington is not only the seat of government for the Province of that name, but holds the same position towards the whole Colony. This distinction was conferred on it, *vice* Auckland, in 1865, when the Commissioners appointed to decide on the most eligible site on the shores of Cook Strait for the Colonial seat of Government, selected Wellington.

It possesses in Port Nicholson an excel-

lent, safe, capacious, and accessible harbour. Notwithstanding the strong gales which occasionally blow, but the violence of which has been greatly exaggerated, vessels of any size can always find a secure anchorage in Port Nicholson. On entering the port, Somes Island, the quarantine station, is seen ahead. Extensive quarantine barracks have been erected on this island: the appliances are very complete, and the arrangements have proved to work most satisfactorily. Somes Island is about four miles from the city; there is a safe and sheltered anchorage on the east side for ships of any size. About half way up the harbour on the south side is Evans Bay, where a joint-stock company has erected a patent slip capable of taking up vessels of 2,000 tons register. The slip has been frequently used with entire success, and forms a most important adjunct to the harbour appliances. Further on is Lambton Harbour, on the shore of which the city of Wellington is built. The anchorage is excellent, as indeed is the case in every part of Port Nicholson. Its capabilities are, however, rarely tested for any length of time, for there is a pier at which ocean steamers of more than 2,000 tons register have lain with ease and safety. This pier, known as the Queen's wharf, was greatly enlarged in 1867, and again a few years later, but the trade of the port has increased so rapidly that it is quite inadequate to the requirements, and is to be largely extended. It is, however, probable that, on the completion of the railway into the heart of the city, a new wharf will be erected adjoining the terminus. The Queen's wharf is well provided with all the necessary appliances for loading and discharging cargo, and it is no uncommon thing to see three or four English ships, of from 800 to 1,500 tons register, alongside the wharf at one time, besides intercolonial and interprovincial steamers, sailing colliers—chiefly barques of 300 to 500 tons—and a number of small sailing coasters. Wellington is the headquarters of the New Zealand Steam Shipping Company, a port of call for the Melbourne steamers, also the chief coal dépôt, besides being the outlet for the produce of large and rich districts of pastoral and agricultural country.

The city itself contains many fine buildings, and is progressing as rapidly in the size and handsome appearance as in the number of the buildings erected. The buildings are all constructed of timber, but concrete is now about to be tried, and doubtless will by degrees come into greater use. A prejudice exists against brick

buildings, on account of smart shocks of earthquake which were felt in Wellington some years ago. There does not, however, seem to be any reason why brick buildings should not be erected.

As the seat of government, naturally some of the finest buildings are those containing the public offices. Government House, the residence of the Governor, is large and commodious. The Houses of Parliament and General Government offices and the Colonial Museum are in its immediate neighbourhood; also the Church of England Cathedral (St. Paul's) and the Roman Catholic Cathedral (St. Mary's), Wellington being an episcopal see of both Churches.

The Provincial Government offices are built immediately on the edge of the harbour, a carriage road alone intervening, and form a very effective object in the view of the city from the bay. Wellington affords a striking example of the *imperium in imperio*, there being no fewer than three distinct government establishments within her boundaries: First, the City Corporation, under His Worship the Mayor; above that, the Provincial Government, under His Honour the Superintendent; and over all, the Colonial Government, under His Excellency the Governor. All these have separate offices and separate staffs of officials, and hence a large proportion of the population of the city consists of that class. The Corporation proposes to build a town-hall and offices at an estimated cost of £6,000. It is contemplated to erect a large organ in the Town Hall, and to use it for colonial musical festivals. The Colonial Museum, under the superintendence of Dr. Hector, F.R.S., is remarkably extensive and complete. There is a Philosophical Society in connection with it, which holds occasional meetings there, when able original papers are often furnished by members.

It may here be mentioned that Wellington was originally built round the edge of Lambton Harbour, and subsequently extended north and south over the Thorndon and Te Aro flats. Even this did not prove sufficient for the growing population, and a large central tract was reclaimed from the harbour for business sites. This, too, is being rapidly covered with buildings, and fresh reclamations are about to be undertaken both on the north and south sides of the part already reclaimed. Gasworks were established a few years since; and a complete system of waterworks has just been constructed by the Corporation, and is in full operation.

There are several important institutions,



some being maintained by Government and aided by public contributions, such as the Provincial Hospital, which, although excellently conducted, has become wholly inadequate to present requirements, and will probably soon be replaced by a new building; also, the new Lunatic Asylum, one of the best and most admirably managed establishments of the kind in the Colony. Some are supported exclusively by the public, such as the Athenæum, which possesses a small library, and is being developed to accord with the general progress of the place. There is also the Choral Society, a very efficient body, which has proved itself capable of undertaking the highest works of musical art; and the new Orchestral Society, an instrumental offshoot of the former. Of friendly societies, the number and variety are very great, and new ones are being formed continually. The number of cricket clubs, boating clubs, &c., is unusually large for the size of the place, and is being constantly augmented. There is a public ground for cricket and athletic sports, which will in time be a very good one. It has a pavilion, or grand stand, of imposing proportions. The aquatic clubs have a perfect fleet of boats, which compete in regattas during the season both at home and abroad. The Jockey Club holds annual races, at which liberal prizes are offered, inducing considerable and often victorious competition from rival Provinces. The Caledonian Society has its annual gathering and athletic sports on New Year's Day, which invariably attract large crowds, as elsewhere; vigorous contests for the prizes offered being stimulated by their liberal amount. The Horticultural Society holds frequent shows during the season, which would be creditable to a much larger town. There is a handsome theatre, built and owned by a joint-stock company. The Freemasons have a Masonic Hall, which, although not of large size or especially striking exterior, is internally most tastefully designed and decorated. The Odd-fellows' Hall, a large and convenient building, is much used for public amusements. There is a spacious and well-equipped Gymnasium. The Botanical Gardens are beautifully situated and well kept; the number of plants is being increased both rapidly and steadily, as is also a small zoological collection kept in the gardens.

There are about fifteen churches and other places of worship, representing the various recognized religious bodies. The principal streets are either macadamized or asphalted, flags being only used in one or two cases. The shops, hitherto small, are

now mostly being either rebuilt or enlarged on an extensive scale; and the increasing retail as well as wholesale business seems to warrant this enlargement.

It may be added that the climate of the city is remarkably equable in temperature—mild in winter and moderate in summer. The wind is occasionally high, and although strong winds are more frequent, yet there is not a greater average of gales and boisterous weather than in most of the other New Zealand seaport towns. Wellington only needs proper sanitary arrangements to be one of the healthiest cities in the world.

The ruling industries of Wellington may be gathered from the description of the city itself. It being mainly a seaport, a considerable number of the inhabitants are engaged in those branches of trade and handicraft which tend to supply the requirements of shipping. Hence, several foundries—one of large size—find ample work in the repairs, additions, and alterations constantly needed by the fleet of steamers belonging to the New Zealand Steam Shipping Company, whose headquarters are at this port. Again, the patent slip affords facilities for overhauling and repairing vessels; and the gas-works, railway, &c., all, either directly or indirectly, give employment to many. Other industries are continually being started, but it is probable that Wellington's main business for a time will be that connected with her large shipping trade and excellent port.

#### THE WEST COAST — NGAHIAURANGA — PORIRUA — HOROKIWI — THE PAIKA- KARIKI HILL.

The western division of the Province possesses a coast-line extending from the Patea River on the north to Cape Terawiti on the south, and includes between the sea and the back mountain ranges, some of the finest open country and valuable timbered land to be found in the Colony. A brief description of these districts will convey to the mind of the intending emigrant a correct idea of some of the advantages which the Wellington Province offers as a field for settlement. The journey from the City of Wellington to the West Coast can be made by Cobb's coaches, which run twice a week to Patea, a distance of 160 miles. The road skirts the shores of the harbour for three miles, running parallel with the Hutt Railway line, and then strikes inland up a wooded ravine called Ngahauranga, on emerging from which the village of Johnsonville is reached. Further on is Tawa



Flat, the country adjoining being somewhat broken into ridges and gullies. The land is chiefly pastoral, and much of it has been originally forest, which is now nearly all cleared, the whole district being occupied by settlers whose houses and farms occupy both sides of the line of road. Twelve miles from Wellington, Porirua Harbour is reached, which is chiefly used by small coasting vessels. Skirting the shores of the harbour, the road winds along through pretty scenery towards Pahautanui, a picturesque village situated at the foot of a steep hill, on the summit of which once stood a Maori war pa, or fortification, the site being now occupied by a church. There is a little cleared land, but the country immediately adjoining is bush, in the midst of which a small-farm settlement has been formed. A road through the bush in an easterly direction leads to the open land of the Hutt Valley. Pahautanui is close to the shore of the Porirua Harbour; and looking seawards, the flat-topped island of Mana, on which a lighthouse has been built, can be seen. Mana is about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile long, half a mile wide, and 440 ft. high. It is covered with pasture, and used as a sheep-run. Still travelling onwards, the Horokiwi Valley is next passed through. This valley was originally covered with bush, but a considerable amount of the land has been cleared by settlers, and is now used chiefly for grazing purposes. After passing the hotel (Blackies), which is about twenty-four miles from Wellington, the ascent of the Paikakariki Hill commences, the road winding up a steep side-cutting, overhanging a bush gully, for several miles, till the summit of the spur is reached, when a splendid view of the whole west coast-line of the Province is presented to the eye. Standing on the crest of the hill, 1,000 ft. above the level of the sea, and looking northward, a great plain of splendid land can be seen stretching out below, with the beach and sandy ridges on one side, and bounded inland by bush and the mountain ranges in the far distance.

This open, undulating country varies in breadth, being only a few miles at some parts, while at others, such as the block situated between the Manawatu and Rangitikei Rivers, the open plains stretch much further inland, and include a large area of territory, most of which is admirably adapted for agricultural purposes. Nor is the view devoid of other striking features. A few miles north, and three seawards from the beach, is situated the Island of Kapiti, its highest peak rising to a height of 1,780 ft.; while in the far distance, nearly two hun-

dred miles off, may be discerned the perpetually snow-capped Mount Egmont, in the Taranaki Province, which rises in a perfect cone, from a base of thirty miles in diameter, to a height of 8,280 ft. above the level of the sea. Again, looking across Cook Strait, the hills of the Middle Island are visible on a clear day; while far inland, the outlines of the Taranaki Ranges form the background of a picture which once seen can never be forgotten.

#### THE OPEN COUNTRY BETWEEN PAIKAKARIKI AND MANAWATU.

The descent of the Paikakariki Hill is by a side-cutting, in some parts nearly 1,000 ft. above the level of the sea. Cobb's coaches, however, travel over this road almost daily in perfect safety; but as the formation of a new line of road from Waikanae, on the Wellington side of the hill, by an inland course up to Manawatu, is contemplated, it is probable that ere long the necessity of crossing the steep Paikakariki Hill will be altogether avoided. From the foot of the hill up to within a short distance of the Waikanae River, nine miles north, the land, which is flat and undulating, being mostly pastoral country, has nearly all been bought by the Crown from the Natives and sold to settlers. There are two or three settlers who occupy it for sheep-farming and grazing purposes. The land close to Waikanae still belongs to the Natives. There is a small hotel or accommodation-house at Paikakariki and another at Waikanae.

The Otaki district, which is the next reached, extends from the Waikanae to the Otaki River, and from the Otaki to the Ohau River, a distance of nineteen miles. The land included in this district is about 50,000 acres. It is still all in the hands of the Natives, but as the ownership has been determined by the Native Lands Court, and negotiations are pending for the purchase of the several blocks, it is practically certain that by the time these pages are published, nearly the whole of the fine district extending from Waikanae to the Manawatu River, including an area of 330,000 acres, will have been purchased by the Crown and thus rendered available for occupation and settlement.

The road from Waikanae to Otaki is at first by the sea beach, and then strikes inland to the village, which is prettily situated about two miles from the sea, and adjoining the river bank. Otaki is a Church of England missionary station, which was for many years under the pas-

toral charge of the Venerable Archdeacon Hadfield, who is now Bishop of Wellington. The village contains a church and school house for the Natives; the former being also attended by Europeans. There are also an hotel and one or two stores, the sites of which have been purchased from the Natives. The European population is, however, very small, as the surrounding country, being still in Native hands, no settlement to any extent exists on it, and thus the trade done is almost exclusively confined to supplying the Natives with goods, and receiving produce in return. The Native population at Otaki is fast dying out through epidemic and other diseases. The land in the Otaki district consists of sandhills near the coast, then open flats of flax land, interspersed with swamps, while the flat immediately surrounding the village contains some excellent land, fit either for pasture or agricultural purposes. The land belonging to the mission station is of excellent quality. Inland there are bush and hills, the land at the edge of the bush and the bush land below the hills being of good quality. The Natives prepare flax, and rope is also manufactured. There is some excellent totara timber to be found in the bush near the Otaki and Ohau Rivers.

The Horowhenua district extends from the Ohau to the Manawatu River. It contains land somewhat similar in character to that already described in the Otaki district, with the exception that there is a much greater extent of good flat bush land close to the hills. There are several inland lakes to be found in both districts. Speaking generally of the country lying between Waikanae and the Manawatu River, it may be said, as the result of careful exploration, that there is a considerable proportion of it good open land adapted for agricultural purposes, while parts of the bush contain a large amount of totara, red pine, and other valuable sawing timbers. In some of the blocks extending towards the Manawatu River the soil is of the richest alluvial, while the flax lands will undoubtedly prove of much value in the future. The remainder of the land, though not of the same superior quality, will ultimately be utilized, as capital and labour become more abundant. In fact, it cannot be doubted that when the negotiations now in progress for the purchase of the blocks referred to are completed, and the district thrown open for settlement, it will support a large population in comfort and prosperity.

#### THE MANAWATU DISTRICT—FOXTON— PALMERSTON AND THE GORGE.

It is, however, after crossing the Manawatu River and reaching Foxton that the great resources of the Province as a field for settlement, and the progress already made in that direction, become fully evident. Foxton, the shipping port of the Manawatu district, is situated four miles from the mouth of the river, and close to its bank. It contains about sixty houses, including a Presbyterian church, Government school house, two hotels, and several stores. There is a wharf for the accommodation of steamers, and a large store at the tramway terminus for the reception of timber and other produce brought from the interior. The rails run right down the wharf for the convenience of shipping those materials. The Manawatu is a bar river with 9 feet of water on the bar, and as much as 14 feet at spring tides. It is navigable by small steamers, two of which trade regularly between Foxton and Wellington, in addition to which the steamer "Tongariro," from Wanganui, and some small sailing vessels, make periodical visits to the port. The river would be navigable for about fifty miles up for steam launches and sailing vessels if the snags were removed, a work which could be done at moderate cost. The land at Foxton is sandy near the coast, but improves a short distance inland. The soil is light and well fitted for grazing purposes, many parts being also suitable for light crops, such as potatoes, and also for gardens and orchards. The district produces flax (*Phormium tenax*) in great abundance, and several mills for its manufacture have been till recently in active operation. The low price ruling for this material has, however, caused its manufacture to be temporarily discontinued. A wooden tramway is laid down from Foxton to Palmerston, a township situated twenty-five miles distant in the very centre of the bush country. This tramway runs for about twelve miles through open level country, consisting of flax-bearing and grazing land, but the rest of the line passes through bush. The tramway is a work of great importance to the district, as previous to its construction the track through the bush was almost impassable for drays in the winter, and the settlers in the upper district had to pay enormous freights for their goods, whether conveyed overland or by river. Now the freight from Foxton to Palmerston by the tramway is very moderate, besides which a cheap and expeditious



means of carriage is afforded for the large amount of timber which exists in the bush round Palmerston. This timber trade, which as yet is only in its infancy, will undoubtedly in time attain very large dimensions, and the construction of the tramway connecting the bush country with the shipping port, has been the chief means of establishing it. Already the export of totara railway sleepers and piles for bridges has commenced from Foxton; while the certainty that a ready market can be found for any quantity of timber that can be supplied, has resulted in the establishment of new saw-mills in the upper Manawatu district. The bush country on the tramway line commences some distance before reaching the Oroua Bridge, and continues for thirteen miles till Palmerston is reached. The work of settlement has already commenced in the bush, as, just before reaching Palmerston, the sections abutting on the tramway line are occupied by Scandinavian immigrants, who have cleared the bush to a considerable extent, sown the land with grass, and erected rough but weather-tight timber huts for themselves and families.

The town of Palmerston is situated on a natural level clearing of about 1,000 acres in extent, surrounded by a very extensive flat bush country. The town, which is of little more than two years' growth, contains about forty houses, including two hotels, two stores, school-house, police-station, and court-house. The soil of the township site is gravelly, being quite different from that of the surrounding bush country, which is of the richest alluvial description, forming agricultural land of the most productive character. Palmerston is the centre point from which several lines of road radiate. The main line of road from Foxton to the Manawatu Gorge, and thence to Napier, in the Hawke Bay Province, passes through it; a second line leads through a small belt of bush into the open country of the Rangitikei-Manawatu block, and thence to Middle Rangitikei; while the tramway will ultimately be carried six miles further inland from Palmerston, to connect with the contemplated railway line from Wellington to Wanganui.

The distance from Palmerston to the Manawatu Gorge is fifteen miles, by a road passing through the finest forest country, containing an almost inexhaustible supply of the most valuable sawing timber. Perhaps in no other part of the Colony does there exist a better specimen of the New Zealand bush than is to be found in this locality. The explorer comes upon groves of the finest totara, while red, white, and

black pines of the largest size are to be found in abundance. A good road has been cut through the bush from Palmerston to the lower ferry of the Gorge, and all along it on both sides may be seen indications of the rapid progress being made in settlement. Passing a saw-mill on the right, a little distance forward on the opposite side is situated the second Scandinavian settlement, and the allotments taken up by the road labourers. These settlements were formed by the General Government on the system of selling to each Scandinavian immigrant bush sections of from 20 to 40 acres each (the latter being the usual quantity taken up in the case of a family), the payments for which extended over a period of five years. The road labourers (mostly English) had 20-acre sections given them on somewhat similar terms. So far, the experiment may be pronounced a success. The Scandinavians obtained partial employment, at good wages, on the public works in the district, and were enabled besides to improve their own holdings. The result is now seen in the cleared fields, and numerous two and four-roomed slab cottages, which dot the side of the road line. These Scandinavians and Norwegians make good colonists. With few exceptions they are frugal, temperate, and industrious, the result of those habits being that most of them have already saved money, while the instalments of payment for their land in the majority of cases have been regularly met. The road labourers, who are mostly single men, have also made considerable progress in clearing and improving their lands.

Behind these settlements, on the left, is situated the first portion of the block purchased by Colonel Feilding for the Emigrant and Colonists' Aid Corporation. This block, which contains 106,000 acres, chiefly of the finest undulating forest land, stretches inland in an easterly direction to the Ruahine Range, and has a frontage to the Road line from the site of the Scandinavian settlement to its own boundary near the Pohangina River. The high quality of the land in this block, its abundance of valuable timber, and its proximity to the road and railway lines, all combine to indicate that the settlements now being formed will be both prosperous and successful.\* The road still continues through the forest for nine miles, but occasional vistas of small natural clearings can occasionally be seen. On

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\* See section headed, "The 'Manchester' Special Settlement."



emerging from the bush, there is a very beautiful natural clearing called Otangaki, on which a trigonometrical station is erected, and a little past this, down a slight descent, is situated the lower ferry of the Manawatu, leading to the gorge. Crossing this, and passing through a grove of bush, the road then lies along a side cutting on the Tararua Range, overlooking the Manawatu River. The view at this point is striking and picturesque. Far below the level of the cutting, the Manawatu River is joined by the Pohangina, which flows into it, the two forming a junction at a little green island lying mid-stream; while towering up on either side are the Tararua Ranges, which, clothed with forest from base to summit, impart an air of rugged grandeur to the scene. Following the Gorge Road to the Upper Ferry, the scenery, while ever changing its phases, preserves the same general character. At one point, the road overhangs the river with a sheer perpendicular descent to the water, which flows in mirror-like smoothness past sloping banks on the opposite side, clothed with emerald-green verdure. Another fifty yards further on, a sudden turn in the side cutting shows the stream, narrowed to a few feet, passing between banks of precipitous rocks; while again, it is tossing and rippling down a slight fall over a bed of massive boulders. The line of road along the range has been selected with much judgment, and the work of construction has been excellently done. The cutting is sufficiently broad for ordinary traffic, and can be widened as required in the future for the railway. Five miles from the Lower Ferry, the Manawatu Gorge is reached, where the river flows through the opening between these two great mountain ranges, the Tararua and Ruahine. This gorge constitutes the eastern boundary line which divides the Wellington Province from that of Hawke's Bay. A large railway bridge is in course of construction across the river, which at this point is about 200 ft. The banks on one side being precipitous, the bridge requires to be nearly 400 ft. in length. It is being built on stone piers, and will be placed at a height of 80 ft. above the bed of the river. On crossing the river the Wellington Province is left behind, and the traveller has reached that of Hawke Bay. The road on the Hawke Bay side leads up by a cutting along the Ruahine Range, into the Seventy-Mile Bush. Pursuing it for three and a quarter miles, a ford of the river is reached, by crossing which the line of road to Masterton in the Wairarapa, or eastern division of the Wellington Province, can be entered upon.

This part of the Province will be afterwards described. But it may be stated here that the work of forming the metalled road through the Seventy-Mile Bush, to connect the west coast with the Wairarapa, was being rapidly pushed on, from the Manawatu side, at the date of writing this; and that now coaches from Wanganui and Patea as well as from Napier, Wairarapa, and Wellington, meet by way of the gorge, thus establishing communication throughout every part of the Wellington Province. The road from the gorge to Napier—the seaport of Hawke Bay, distant 105 miles—which leads through the Ruataniwha Plains, and opens up a splendid stretch of country, is now nearly completed, so that inland communication between the two Provinces will shortly be permanently established.

The view from the high ground on the side cutting enables an adequate idea to be formed of the large extent of valuable timber which exists in this part of the Wellington Province. Looking across the river towards the Wellington side, a large tract of level bush country, varied by a few low-lying hills, can be seen for a distance of nearly forty miles. The supply of timber thus afforded cannot be exhausted for many years to come, and the land when cleared is of the richest and most productive kind. A bush country like this cannot be rendered productive without the expenditure of much labour, but the ultimate success of settlers on it is absolutely certain. The cost of falling and burning the bush averages about 40s. per acre, but when that has been done the land thus cleared far surpasses in fertility even the best of the open country. Moreover, as the country becomes more opened up, an accessible market will be found for the timber, which will thus prove a valuable source of wealth to the settlers. With road and railway communication, a large population, and ample facilities for the export of timber, the Upper Manawatu bush country is destined to become one of the most prosperous districts of the Province.

The ruling industries of the districts thus described may be stated in a few words. The Foxton district possesses three flax-mills, which will probably soon resume operations, and there is a moderate production of wool from the stations and smaller holdings. There is not much land in crop excepting to supply the local demands for agricultural and garden produce, but there is a fair number of horses and cattle bred in the district. Foxton is only beginning to be developed, but as population increases, its progress will be rapid. The Palmerston

District, as already indicated, owes its chief source of wealth to its timber. Four saw-mills at present exist in the district, which will probably supply 3,000,000 superficial feet of sawn timber during the year 1874, 2,000,000 of which will be exported. This production will be largely increased in 1875, as the erection of several new saw-mills is contemplated.

THE RANGITIKEI-MANAWATU BLOCK—  
OROUA — SANDON — SMALL FARM  
SETTLEMENT—MIDDLE, LOWER, AND  
UPPER RANGITIKEI—MARTON TOWNSHIP.

Returning to Palmerston as a starting-point, and following the road towards Rangitikei, a journey of seven miles through bush leads to the Oroua River, across which a bridge has been constructed. The bush land up to the bridge has been surveyed into sections, which are for sale on deferred payments, and are being gradually taken up. The land is of excellent quality, and settlers' houses, with their clearings, are to be found at intervals along the road. There is an hotel, and the beginning of a small township called Awahuri, at the river, the land in the immediate vicinity being Native, portions of which have either been leased or sold to Europeans. On crossing the river the country becomes open, and presents to the view a large undulating plain, varied with one or two low-lying hills extending from the bush to the sea coast, and from the Manawatu on the south to the Rangitikei River on the north. This district includes the Manawatu and Rangitikei-Manawatu blocks, which, taken together with the Palmerston bush country, comprise 500,000 acres of the most valuable land in the Province, all of which is admirably adapted to support a large population. The road runs in a north-westerly direction through land of excellent quality, covered with fern and toi-toi, and suitable for either grazing or agricultural purposes. Four miles from the Oroua the ground rises gradually as Mount Stewart is reached, from the summit of which a splendid view of the surrounding country can be obtained, the snow-capped Ruapehu in the far distant north, the Paikakariki Hill on the south, and the sea on the west, being visible on a clear day. After crossing Mount Stewart, the road passes through the block of open land which was set apart for sale on deferred payments, and the block of the Hutt Small Farm Association, both being situated in the Sandon and Carnarvon districts.

A small township named Sanson has been formed on the Hutt small farm block, the road passing through it, while in the vicinity are the houses and fenced-in farms of the settlers, who, though only recently come into occupation of the land, are clearing off fern and sowing English grasses. The whole of the land on deferred payments has been taken up, and settlers are rapidly occupying it, while the members of the Hutt Small Farm Association are in almost every instance in occupation of their allotments. A road is being made from Sanson to Foxton, a distance of thirteen miles, which will open up a large district of country for settlement.

After leaving Sanson, the next centre of population is Bull's, situated on the north side of the Rangitikei River, the country passed through in reaching it being nearly all open, undulating land, of splendid quality, and most of it occupied by settlers. The bridge at the Rangitikei River is a fine structure, recently erected at a cost of £9,000. Bull's is the township of the Middle Rangitikei district, and consists of about forty houses, including hotels, stores, school house, court house, and public hall. There are a large saw-mill and four flax-mills in the vicinity, but the latter are not at present in operation. The country in the vicinity of this centre of population has all been taken up, and is occupied chiefly for stock-breeding and grazing purposes. Agriculture is as yet but little followed in the Middle Rangitikei district, and only a small amount of land is under crop, but a considerable area has been sown with English grasses. The country lying between Bull's and the Lower Rangitikei consists of good grazing land with light soil. The holdings are mostly large, being chiefly stations, where horses, cattle, and sheep are raised. Two good metalled roads branch from Bull's, one being the main line to Turakina, and Wanganui, the other leading to Marton, nine miles off, and the township of the Upper Rangitikei district, and thence through the "Bonny Glen" to Turakina, where it joins the main line to Wanganui.

The land between Bull's and Turakina is open country, with bush in the far background. It is chiefly occupied for grazing purposes, but a large portion of it is first-class agricultural land. The other road leading to Marton passes through settled country, the holdings being pretty large, varying from 600 to 3,000 acres each. The Upper Rangitikei district includes the country lying between Bull's and Marton, a distance of nine miles, and thence in a



northerly direction for about fifteen miles, till the bush is reached. The land generally is grazing country of good quality, but in a northerly direction from Marton, and at a locality known as the Fern Flats, it is of the very richest agricultural kind. A fair amount of agricultural produce is grown in that part of this district, but the bulk of the land is in pasture. Wool, cereals, flour, flax, cattle, and sheep are the chief productions.

The township of Marton, so called after the birthplace of Captain Cook, presents all the characteristics of a model English village. The houses are well built and tastefully finished, the churches possess considerable pretensions to architectural beauty, while the hotels are the most commodious and comfortable to be found in any of the country districts of the Province. The town proper contains about eighty houses, and the country immediately surrounding is occupied chiefly by small farmers, with holdings ranging from 120 to 600 acres. The public buildings include court house, post office, telegraph station, drill shed, and town hall, besides which the friendly societies contemplate putting up some buildings of their own. The Hon. W. Fox, lately Premier of New Zealand, who resides in the district, has laid out a new township called Crofton, two miles and a half from Marton, and built thereon a Rechabite hall. Crofton is to be a tectotal township, the founder presenting any one with a half-acre section who will build a small house thereon within a limited period, the condition of the deed of gift being in every case that no intoxicating liquor is ever to be sold in the building. A German settlement is also established about a mile from Marton. Frugal, industrious, and temperate, these Germans make admirable settlers, and their small holdings, each with its highly-cultivated fields and pretty garden, form a very pleasant picture.

#### TURAKINA—WANGAehu AND WANGANUI.

The road from Marton to Turakina lies through undulating open country, with occasional low-lying hills, the land being all of good quality and all occupied. After ascending a hill, the view from which in the direction of Rangitikei gives an excellent idea of the surrounding country, the descent on the other side leads into the Turakina district, a small valley, bounded on the west by sandhills and the sea, and on all other sides by low ranges of hills. Turakina is a township of older date than Marton, but the latter has advanced more

rapidly. It is somewhat smaller than Marton, containing about forty houses, with two churches, one school house, three hotels, and seven stores. The land is of very superior quality, most of the holdings being large, with a few small cottage freeholds. The valley is watered by the Turakina River, the land up the side of which is of an open, flat kind, and very superior in quality. There is a small patch of excellent sawing bush at the lower side of the valley, which fact is noteworthy, as the bush in the Rangitikei is generally all a considerable distance inland. Following the main line, and crossing the Turakina River at the bridge, the road ascends the hill at a side cutting and emerges on a large flat of open flax and fern country, which extends, with occasional undulations, for a considerable distance inland. A few miles onward, the road descends to the Wangaehu River. The land in the immediate vicinity of the river is swampy and a portion of it covered with flax. The whole of the country between the Turakina and Wangaehu Rivers is still in the hands of the Natives, but most of it has been leased to Europeans, who have established sheep and cattle stations upon it. Inland from the Wangaehu River there is a considerable area of open country containing good land. On crossing the bridge of the Wangaehu, the road leads up a steep hill and emerges on table land. The country lying between the Wangaehu and Wanganui Rivers forms the Wanganui block. It is bounded on the west by the sea, and consists of open, undulating country for a considerable distance inland, after which it becomes slightly broken. The whole of this block has been sold by the Crown to settlers, and the land is all occupied. The block is well opened up by roads, and the numerous holdings, with their well-fenced grass-sown paddocks, and large comfortably built houses, afford abundant indications of the well doing and prosperity of the settlers. The town of Wanganui is fourteen miles from the Wangaehu River by the main line of road, but some distance further by the No. 2 line, which passes through the settled interior of the block. The journey by the main road affords the view of some pretty scenery, the traveller now passing through a little valley dotted with homesteads, then ascending a hill showing from its summit the gleaming waters of an inland lake, and next coming in view of the broad Wanganui River, as it sweeps past the town in its course to the sea.

Next to the city of Wellington, Wanganui is the largest and most important



town in the Province. It is built on a flat on the right bank of the Wanganui River, about three miles from its mouth. The town itself contains about 300 houses, and its population is estimated at 2,000. Wanganui is a borough possessing municipal institutions, its local affairs being under the management of a Mayor and Council. The river is spanned by a splendid iron bridge, the largest which has yet been built in the North Island, being, with its approaches, nearly 600 ft. long. It is supported on seven cast-iron cylinder piers, six of the piers being each composed of two cylinders. The swing-span is 130 ft. long, and the swing is moved by powerful geared machinery. The swing, when open, leaves two clear passages, each 40 ft. wide, so that vessels may pass up and down the river at the same time. The iron materials for this bridge were manufactured by Messrs. Kennard and Co., of London, and the erection was successfully carried out by a colonial contractor, Mr. Henry McNeill. The total cost of the bridge was £32,000.

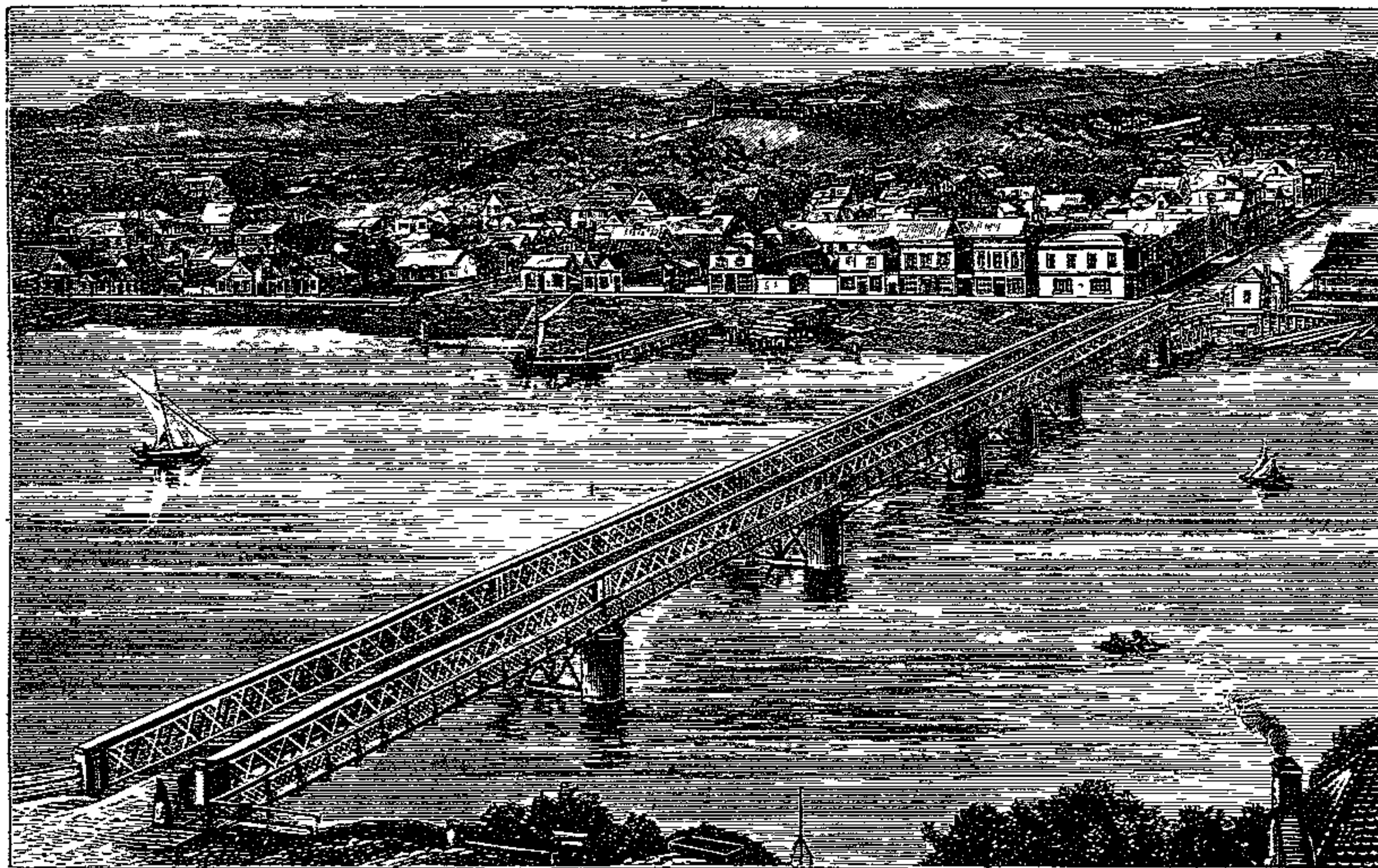
The shops and merchants' stores in Wanganui include some handsome and commodious buildings, the chief business premises being situated on Taupo Quay, facing the river bank, and in Victoria Avenue. There are several wharves, the largest being that belonging to the Corporation, which, with its goods transit shed, is situated a little below the bridge, in close proximity to the custom-house and clearing shed. There is a large and handsome court house, including offices for the Resident Magistrate, the Municipal Corporation, and other departments. This building is situated on the Market Square, in the centre of which is the Moutoa monument, "erected," as the inscription states, "to the memory of those brave men who fell at Moutoa on 14th May, 1864, in defence of law and order against fanaticism and barbarism." The event of which this monument recalls the memory may be briefly alluded to. In 1864, a band of rebel Natives, contemplating a descent down the river upon the Wanganui settlement, were met and resisted at the small island of Moutoa. A hard-fought and bloody battle ensued, the invaders being utterly beaten and many slain, while the friendly Natives also suffered severely. The service rendered by the "friendlies" is commemorated by this monument. On the sandhills overlooking the town are situated the Rutland and York stockades, the former being used as a gaol, and the latter as a station to repeat the signals made at the heads. There is an Odd Fellows' Hall, four churches, a

public hospital, and several schools in the town, while the private houses include many handsome villa residences.

The Wanganui is a bar river, the depth of water ranging from 9 ft. to 14 ft. The bar can be crossed at high water by steamers, several of which trade regularly between the port and other parts of the Colony; while of late the *Malay*, a vessel of about 450 tons burden, has come out direct from England to the port. A project is contemplated for deepening and widening the channel of the river from the heads up to the town, and also removing the snags which obstruct the navigation. The river is navigable for seventy miles by canoes, and steamers of a few feet draught have been up fourteen miles. The pilot station is situated at the heads, from which point the condition of the bar can be signalled to vessels about to cross it. On the left bank of the river there are a few houses close to the bridge, the place being called Campbelltown; and a little lower down is a Native pa named Putiki, the original Maori whares of which have been replaced by substantial wooden houses, built after the European fashion, to the order of their Native owners. A church and missionary residence are situated adjoining the pa.

The scenery of this part of the Province is not without its features of beauty. Looking up the Wanganui valley, the view of the river winding through and dividing the flat, with the table-topped hills on both sides, the high wooded ranges as a background, and the snowy mass of Ruapehu towering above all in the distance, combine to form a lovely picture. Again, on ascending the table lands, level and undulating plains can be seen below, extending mile upon mile; and besides Ruapehu inland, the volcanic cone of Mount Egmont to the north-west, and the great mountain ranges of the Ruahine, Tararua, and Rimutaka to the south-east, are distinctly visible in clear weather; while to the south, some of the islands near Nelson, and even the highest peak of the main land, can be discerned rising above the sea line. Inland, the river scenery would delight the eye of an artist. Such are some of the views on the Mangawhero, where the river runs foaming amidst huge granite boulders, and is overhung by forest-clad hills towering 1,500 ft., the prevailing dark green of the bush being relieved by the bright crimson of the flowering rata, and the dull tint of the tawhero contrasting with the white blossom of the ake.

Like all towns and districts in the Wellington Province, the land resources of



WANGANUI BRIDGE, WELLINGTON.



Wanganui are only as yet partially developed. Still the progress which has been made during the last four or five years is something wonderful. In that short period, it has been transformed from a little village into a handsome town, replete with almost every comfort and convenience. Already some manufacturing industries have been established, such as breweries, soap works, and an iron foundry. There are also several flax-mills in the vicinity. Rope is beginning to be manufactured from the flax, and very soon ship-building will be commenced. The whole surrounding district is excellently adapted for agricultural pursuits, but hitherto the satisfactory prices obtained for sheep and cattle have caused the settlers to turn their attention to grazing, and some of the finest stock and sheep to be found in the Colony are bred in the Wanganui district. Indeed, for horses, sheep, and cattle, Wanganui bears a very high reputation; while for the wool grown in the district, one flock-owner recently took five prizes at the Sydney Intercolonial Exhibition. As illustrative of what are the chief articles of production, a few figures carefully obtained on the spot may be given here:—

For the period of two years, extending from 30th October, 1871, to 1st November, 1873, sundry steamers left Wanganui for Auckland and the west coast of the Middle Island, carrying 6,390 head of cattle and 38,340 sheep. During the same period, numerous schooners, carrying 272 head of cattle and 1,116 sheep, left for Nelson and the Pelorus. The exports of wool and flax, as obtained from the local custom-house for the period between the 1st January and 30th September, 1873 (nine months), were as follow:—Wool, 2,721 bales, at a value of £54,420; and flax, 2,119 bales, at a value of £6,357. These figures are valuable, as showing the actual original exports from the Wanganui district. In the case of wool and flax, most of what is exported is sent to Wellington, and thence transhipped to Great Britain, the amounts being thus classed under the general head of Wellington exports.

#### THE COUNTRY INLAND FROM WANGANUI.

At the back of the belt of open level land lying along the shore of Cook Strait are a series of wooded ranges. These ascend gradually for the most part in broken terraces, separated by ravines, till, at a distance of about fifteen miles inland, they attain an elevation of from 2,000 feet to 2,500 feet above the level of the sea.

When viewed from the coast, these ranges seem to be entirely covered with bush, but this appearance is deceptive, and in reality nearly half of the country is either open or easily cleared. The soil is everywhere of the richest description, superior to any near the coast; but from the difficulty of getting into it, owing to our ignorance of the practicable routes, and its being in the hands of the Natives, this country is only now beginning to be taken up by settlers. Inside of the highest range, the country suddenly falls about 1,000 feet, and then again rises gradually towards the great mountain Ruapehu—which stands in solitary majesty, covered with perpetual snow, about fifty miles inland—and the high ranges extending from the Tahua country westward to Mokau, which form the watershed from which the drainage flows southward to Wanganui and northward to Waikato. The portion of this inland slope immediately adjacent to the Wanganui River, and indeed from the Mangawhero River on the east to the sea coast at New Plymouth on the west, is a good deal broken. East of the Mangawhero River, however, between it and Ruapehu and the Upper Wanganui, there are some hundreds of square miles of beautiful level country. Most of it is wooded, but there are fine openings, sometimes of 1,000 acres or more in extent, scattered through it; and at its northern end, on the Native track from Pipiriki to Taupo, there is a very large extent of open grassy country, known as the Waimate or Patea plains, lying along the skirts of the active volcano Tongariro, and a number of smaller extinct ones to the north-west of it. These plains are said to consist of very poor soil (pumice and scoria ash), but will make good grazing land, and are so level that one may gallop a horse all over them. The whole of this district possesses a fine bracing climate. The proximity of snowy mountains, and the elevation above the sea level, often cause considerable changes in temperature, and frosts frequently occur at night, even in the middle of summer. This portion of the Province has hitherto been but little known, but the attention of the Government has lately been directed to it, and large blocks of land are in course of acquisition for the purpose of settlement; whilst a bridge which is being constructed from Wanganui by way of the dividing range, between the Wangaehu and Turakina Rivers, will greatly facilitate communication with it.

On the eastern side of Ruapehu, between it and the Kaimanawa range, and on the lower spurs of the latter range, there is a



very large extent of open country, known as the Taupo plains and Patea country, in which the Waikato, Wangaehu, Hantapu, and Moawhango (the latter two of the main branches of the Rangitikei) take their rise, the source of the Turakina being just within the bush on the south of it. There are long strips of level ground, generally rather boggy, along the sides of the streams, but the remainder, though open and grassy, is very broken. The soil is very poor, and only fit for grazing. Owing to the high elevation, the snow lies on the ground for a long time in winter, and sharp night frosts are frequent during nine months of the year.

The Parao-Karetu block, now being surveyed, has a belt of broken land on the side next the Rangitikei district, but inland it consists of open bush interspersed with grassy glades, the home of large numbers of wild cattle. It can be reached by a road from Wanganui direct, or by one up the Turakina valley, and there is reason to believe that another practicable line into it exists *via* the Porowai valley. There is a great deal of similar land lying between it and the Patea country, but it is in Native hands. Between Waitotara and Patea there is also a considerable amount of fine land inland of the settlements. It will thus be seen that the country drained by the Wanganui and its tributaries possesses large pastoral and agricultural capabilities. The cause of its non-development hitherto has been the fact of its being in the hands of the Natives; but this difficulty is now passing away. Gold is found in small quantities all the way up the Wanganui River, probably indicating more or less rich deposits at its head-quarters in the Tahua country. Prospecting in that region has, however, only been carried on by the Natives as yet, and whether a payable gold field exists there or not remains to be proved. Should such prove to be the case, the country would be opened up at once.

THE COUNTRY NORTH OF WANGANUI—  
KAI IWI—MAXWELLTON—NUKUMARU  
— THE WAITOTARA BLOCK — THE  
CONFISCATED LANDS — OKOTUKU  
BLOCK—WAIROA—WHENUAKURA—  
PATEA — NORTHERN BOUNDARY OF  
THE PROVINCE.

The country lying north of Wanganui is well worthy of a visit, either by the tourist or intending settler. On leaving town, the road leads northwards up Victoria Avenue

to St. John's Hill, from the summit of which a pretty view of the valley, the river, and the town can be obtained. Beyond this, the country consists of table lands for several miles, all of which has long been occupied. The land is of excellent quality, and would produce large crops, but most of it is in pasture. Well-built and commodious houses, with luxuriant gardens and paddocks, are to be seen on every side; while for miles along the road the blooming hawthorn hedges, with their delicious perfume, recall to the mind of the wayfarer the memory of summer country rambles in England. There are two small sheets of water in this locality, one called Virginia Lake and the other Westmere. Virginia Lake is about 24 acres in area, with a maximum depth of 78 feet. It will shortly be used as a source of water-supply for the town, the necessary plant having been ordered. The Westmere Lake is situated at a higher level, and may possibly be used to supplement the water-supply obtained from the other source. Beyond the table land the road leads down into Goat Valley, and after passing through some broken pastoral country, hills and valleys alternating, the Kai Iwi stream is reached, nine miles distant from Wanganui. For several miles onward the road runs along a side cutting on the hill, with a bush gully on the right. Crossing Okelu stream, a short distance further up the ascent, the bush is left behind, and the first glimpse of the fertile Waitotara block obtained. Two or three houses here on the left are called Maxwellton, while on the right is a beautiful vista of open, level, grassed land, backed by forest. The scenery and the character of the land now begin to improve greatly. A mile or two further along the road is situated Nukumaru, now the site of a snug roadside inn, built a few yards from the famous Maori stronghold, Tauranga Ika, where, five years ago, the notorious rebel chief Titokowaru and his followers were entrenched, while the whole of the Colonial forces, under Colonel Whitmore, had taken up a position before it. At that time the country from Wanganui to Nukumaru was occupied by armed forces, the Waitotara block being the scene of continual skirmishes. In the country adjacent to Nukumaru, settlers' houses had been burned, their cultivations destroyed, and their cattle driven off. That state of things has now happily passed away for ever. Titokowaru and his followers have been driven out of the district, peace has been re-established, and the country from Wanganui to the Waingongoro River, a distance of sixty-five

miles, is rapidly becoming occupied and settled. Moreover, the whole district is being opened up by roads; bridges span the streams; and Cobb's coaches run twice a week between Wanganui and New Plymouth, crossing in their progress the confiscated lands.

The pa at Tauranga Ika is now in ruins, and a brick kiln has been erected on its site. The scenery at Nukumarū possesses a degree of quiet, rustic beauty which is very pleasing. On the right is forest, and on the left the open country stretches out in an undulating plain towards the sea. Proceeding northwards up the coast, the country becomes more open, the bush receding further back, and leaving a large expanse of clear land between it and the sea. The Waitotara block contains about 35,000 acres, and is bounded on the north by the river of that name, which is reached three miles beyond Nukumarū. That part of the land in the block which is near the sea is somewhat sandy, but a little inland it much improves in character, while close to and in the bush the soil is of the richest description. The bush is nine miles inland, but this by no means forms the last of the open country, as there is a large extent of open and undulating country behind it. The country between Nukumarū and the Waitotara River presents all the appearance of a settled and prosperous district. The whole of the block is occupied by settlers, the holdings averaging from 200 to 500 acres, with a few larger ones varying from 600 to 2,500 acres. The settlers' houses are generally large and handsome buildings, while the land belonging to each is enclosed by substantial fences. The land is chiefly used for pastoral purposes, and the chief productions are cattle, horses, sheep, and wool.

The Waitotara River is now being bridged. The scenery near the river is varied and picturesque. It flows through a narrow valley hemmed in by hills on each side, with the sea in front, and a background of bush. Much of the bush has been cleared near the river banks, and settlers' houses are dotted here and there in the open spaces. On the north side of the river, a small township is springing up, and indications of progress are to be seen on every side in the clearings and cultivations made by the settlers. This locality possesses many interesting reminiscences of the past. In the vicinity is the Wereroa pa, and the gardens and cultivations near the bush have been the scene of more than one hard-fought encounter.

The north side of the Waitotara River

marks the beginning of the confiscated lands, which were formerly held by Natives who had taken part against us in the war. That portion of this land lying immediately north of the Waitotara is called the Okotuku block. Ascending the hill to the table land above, a good view of the surrounding country for several miles can be obtained. For nearly fourteen miles back to the bush it consists of open, undulating country, broken by bush gullies. The open country is chiefly pastoral land, but the soil being of good quality, much of it will ultimately be put under crop, as holdings become more subdivided and population increases. Close to the bush the land is very rich, and many open flats are to be found in the interior. Seven miles onwards is situated the township of Wairoa. There is a redoubt here occupied by a small body of Armed Constabulary; also an hotel, some stores, and other buildings. The district surrounding Wairoa is either already occupied or in course of being so. Town sections of one acre, and rural allotments of sixty acres, have been granted by the Government, out of the confiscated lands, to military settlers, which in some instances have been occupied by the recipients. In addition to this, a large strip of land abutting on the road-line from Waitotara to Waingongoro, a distance of forty-three miles, has been laid off as a railway reserve, and that portion of it lying between the Waitotara and Paten rivers sold by auction. As a result of this, settlement is rapidly progressing all along the coast from Waitotara to the northern boundary of the Province.

There is a considerable amount of confiscated land in the Wellington Province still left to be disposed of, most of it, however, being back country. From time to time, as the country is opened up by roads, this will be brought into the market. The description of the country already given applies generally to the remainder between Wairoa and the Whenuakura River, six miles further on, save that the country near Wairoa stands on a higher level, and commands a view of the sea. The Whenuakura is a narrow stream, now being bridged. Between it and the Paten River is situated the Whenuakura block, which in some measure resembles the Okotuku block, with the exceptions that the open country which it contains is more level and extends a greater distance inland, and that it is broken by fewer bush gullies. The land is, on the whole, of even finer quality than that in the Okotuku district, and there is the same back-ground of bush country.

A line stretching inland from the mouth

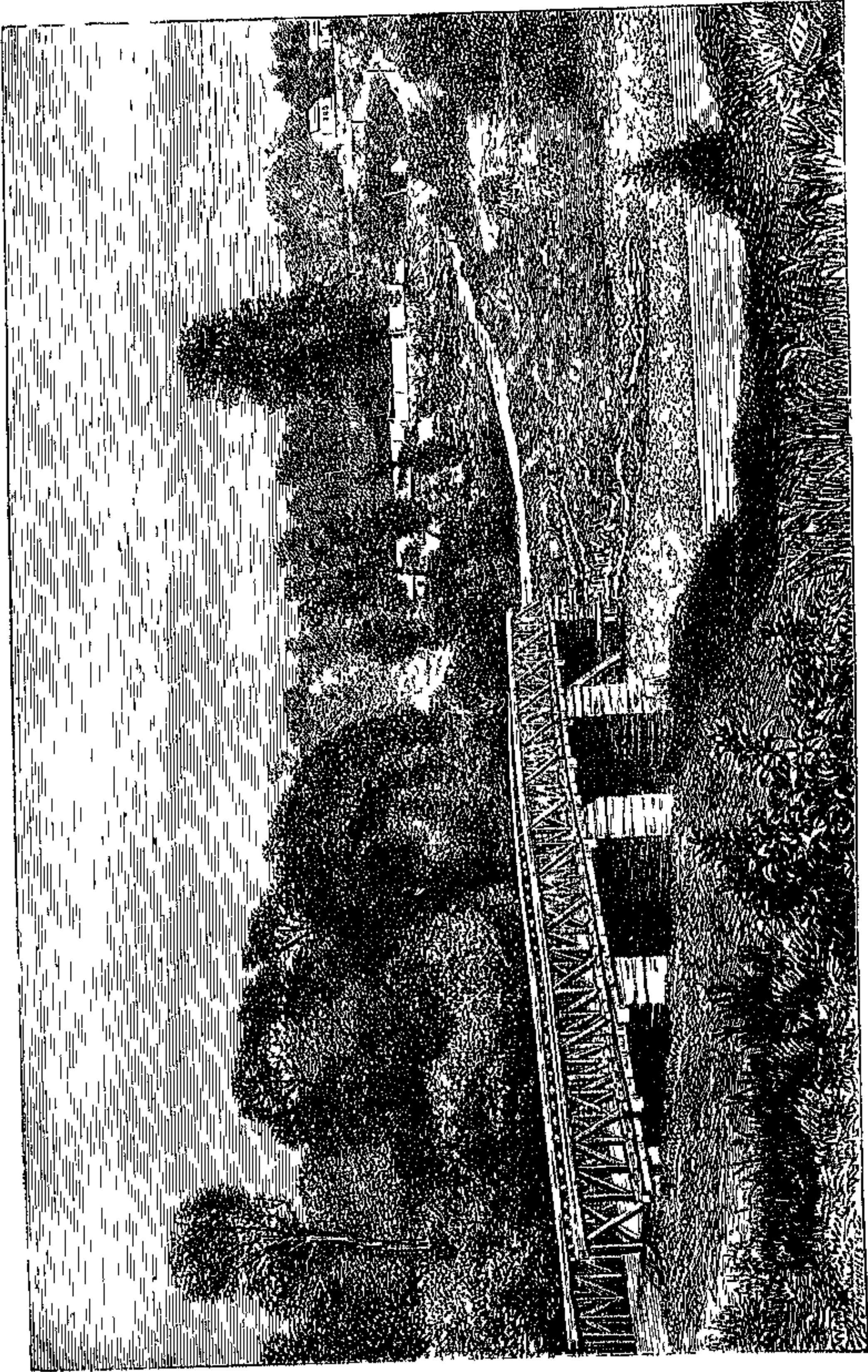


of the Patea River forms the northern boundary of the Wellington Province. The Patea is a bar river, with a depth of 6 ft. at high water, and as much as 10 ft. at spring tides. It is navigable by small steamers and sailing vessels drawing 5 ft., and a few such visit the port at intervals. The bar, however, bears the reputation of being dangerous, and when railway communication is established between Patea and Wanganui, goods and produce will be carried chiefly by land carriage. At present, the river is crossed by a punt, but bridges are in course of construction across it, as well as the Whenuakura and Waitotara. The town of Carlyle is situated on the north side of the river, and about half a mile from its mouth. The town is built on slightly-elevated ground, the site having been laid out by the General Government in 1870; and it already contains a population of about 220. There are three large hotels, a school-house, two churches, a court-house, post-office, telegraph station, and other public offices. The other buildings include a bank and several stores. Carlyle is the district head-quarters of the Armed Constabulary, but so peaceful is now the attitude of the Natives that only twelve men require to be stationed there. The scenery up the Patea River is very pleasing and diversified. The country consists of ridges and valleys, with table land at the top of the former, and some flats of very rich agricultural land near the river bank. From the top of one of these ridges, and looking southwards, a splendid view is afforded of the Whenuakura block and the country adjacent on the Wellington side of the river. Going a little inland, the country presents the same features of flat-topped ridges and valleys, with a back-ground of bush, but behind that there are many open clearings.

#### THE HUTT AND WAIRARAPA.

Taking the City of Wellington again as a starting-point, the next division of the Province to be described is the valley of the Hutt, so called after the river of that name, which flows through it and discharges itself into the upper portion of Wellington harbour. The Hutt valley is reached from Wellington by a road skirting the harbour, parallel with the railway line now completed. Passing the villages of Kaiwarrawarra and Ngahauranga, at the latter of which the road branches off to the West Coast, a few miles further on the Hutt bridge is reached, which, together with a small village, is situated at the lower part of the valley. This village is a pretty

country suburb of Wellington, and contains in its vicinity some highly-cultivated properties of considerable extent, as well as numerous small holdings. The valley consists of rich alluvial land, the whole of which is thickly peopled. A few miles further up are two villages, called the Taata and the Upper Hutt, the latter possessing extensive saw-mills. The general features of this district, which lies altogether to the west of the Tararua and Rimutaka ranges, are steep wooded spurs proceeding from those ranges, and valleys lying between them. After leaving the Upper Hutt, the Mungaroa is the next point reached, on passing which the ascent of the Rimutaka Hill, a spur of the Tararua range, commences. The summit of the hill is reached by a side-cutting, and the descent on the other slope by similar means leads to the lower part of the Wairarapa valley. The township of Featherston is situated at the base of the hill and the lower end of the valley. The township is small, consisting of only a few scattered houses, with the usual court-house, post-office, telegraph station, and hotels. The whole of the surrounding district consists of pastoral land, the country being open and level, with a little bush in some places. Two miles beyond Featherston is the Tauherenikau River, which flows across the valley into the Wairarapa Lake, a huge body of fresh water, covering an area of about sixteen square miles, very shallow, and nearly on the same level as the sea. The next township is Greytown, seven miles from Featherston. This is a prosperous township, containing about 120 houses, the population being estimated at 450. Its chief street contains numerous handsome shops, hotels, and private houses; it possesses three churches, a Government free school and a private one, with court-house and other public buildings. There are besides a literary institute, with large reading-room and library; also a public hall. A newspaper published in Greytown has a considerable circulation throughout the valley. There is abundance of good sawing bush in the district, and five steam saw-mills, which annually turn out a large quantity of timber, a considerable portion being sent to Wellington and even to the Middle Island. Totara piles for buildings, and telegraph-poles of the same timber, are obtained in large quantities from the Wairarapa district. Flax is also manufactured, and wool largely grown, so that a very extensive carrying trade is concerned in the conveyance of these staple productions to Wellington, while large quantities of general



WAIRARAPA, BRIDGE, WELLINGTON.



merchandise are brought back from the city.

Beyond Greytown, the road lies for some little way through bush, but the rest of the country in the direction of Carterton and Masterton, the latter being eleven miles from Greytown, is open arable land, a good deal of which is placed under crop. The description of Greytown applies generally to the township of Masterton, except that the latter has less production of timber; but on the other hand agriculture is more extensively pursued. Carterton is a smaller township situated between Greytown and Masterton. The trade and prosperity of Greytown are in a great measure promoted by the custom of the stockowners and station hands of the lower valley; and in the case of Masterton, the farmers of the Opaki plain are found liberal buyers at the stores, while the Government expenditure in opening a road through the Seventy-Mile Bush, gives employment to the Scandinavian labourers, who obtain their supplies from the township. Two dépôts have been established for the reception of immigrants, one at Featherston and the other at Greytown.

The township of Masterton is the centre of a flourishing small-farm district, and the land being of excellent quality, the settlers, whose snug homesteads are to be seen in every direction, are prosperous and well doing. The township is situated at the point of divergence of the roads to Castle Point and the Manawatu Gorge.

#### PROJECTED ROADS TO OPEN UP THE COUNTRY.—DESCRIPTION OF THE LAND.

Before describing the country between Masterton and the Gorge, it may be stated that as the formation of eighty-one miles of district roads is contemplated, the whole of the blocks of unsold Crown lands in the Wairarapa and East Coast districts will thus be rendered available for purchase, occupation, and settlement. The proposed road line from Masterton to Alfredton will pass through good bush country across the Rangitumau range, and thence through a clearing on the Wangapehu River, ultimately leading into a beautiful and fertile valley, nine miles long by three-quarters of a mile broad, the land being of the very finest quality. Another intended road, from Alfredton to Castle Point will open up a large tract of country; while a third line will effect the same object in the case of the open lands lying under the eastern slope of the Puketoi range. In brief, it may be stated that by the end of 1876, the whole

of the Wairarapa and East Coast districts will be opened up by a network of roads, acting as feeders to the main line leading from Masterton to the Gorge and West Coast, and also to Napier on the east. This will ultimately be the route taken by the trunk railway line which, starting from Wellington, will traverse the Wairarapa, run through the Seventy-Mile Bush to the Gorge, and thence proceed up the West Coast, by way of Wanganui, to Taranaki and Auckland.

#### THE COUNTRY BETWEEN MASTERTON AND MANAWATU GORGE.

The main road line from Masterton to the Manawatu Gorge runs in the first place through a block of splendid bush land, containing about 45,000 acres, of which a general description will afford a good idea of the whole of the country in this locality. That portion of the block which lies in a northerly direction, consists of 14,000 acres of first-class agricultural land, abundantly watered throughout by the Kopuaranga River and numerous streamlets. The land is moderately timbered, chiefly with red pine, the bush being of an open character. This part of the block is specially adapted for a small-farm settlement. Its abundance of level land, its rich soil and adequate supply of timber and water, present all the essential requisites of a good site for such a purpose. Nor should it be forgotten that, stretching further north, there are from 20,000 to 30,000 additional acres of level, agricultural land of the same quality, and presenting the same characteristics as that already described, which would afford ample scope for the after extension of the small-farm settlements at first formed.

That portion of the block situated on the eastern side consists of 10,000 acres of undulating country, timbered with red pine, matai, and occasionally white pine. The soil is of a limestone formation and of excellent quality, equal, if not superior, to that of the open, flat, bush land. The undulating nature of the land would, however, unfit a large portion of it for ploughing, and hence it is more adapted for pastoral purposes. A mixed system of agricultural and pastoral settlement, the latter predominating, would be the most suitable in this part of the block. The land is well watered by numerous streams branching from the Kopuaranga River. The remainder of the block, though somewhat more broken, is also suitable for pastoral purposes. It will be understood from the foregoing observations that the

greater portion of this block is admirably fitted for special settlements, and that much of the land is of fine quality. It should also be borne in mind that, as the land abutting on its southern boundary is already settled upon, the location of additional population on the best portion of the block would ultimately secure the settlement of the country in an unbroken line from Masterton to the Seventy-Mile Bush. The contemplated railway line runs from Masterton to the Seventy-Mile Bush, in an almost due northerly direction, through the centre of the block, over a country which presents no engineering difficulties whatever. The construction of this railway would prove of inestimable advantage to the proposed settlements in this block, as not only opening up a large area of valuable land, but also as affording the means of cheap and expeditious transit to the Wellington market for the large amount of stock, produce, and timber which will ultimately be obtained from the district in question.

To the north of this block there is another valley, averaging about eight miles in breadth, which extends to the Hawke Bay boundary of the Province, and consists of fine open tawa bush, the land being in some parts slightly undulating, but nowhere do the hills exceed 50 ft. in altitude. The soil is of excellent quality, and abundantly watered by numerous streams. The whole of this open bush land is admirably adapted for the purpose of small-farm settlements.

From the summit of Mount Bruce a fine view can be obtained of the level, wooded, and undulating country which extends from the saddle to the Manawatu Gorge, and from the Taranaki range far on towards the East Coast. That extensive forest land must embrace an area of at least 600 square miles, which, now that it has been opened up by the main road line, will begin to be occupied, and in course of time will support a large population of industrious settlers.

The road line from Masterton through the Seventy-Mile Bush has been already opened up. Beyond the saddle, a point eighteen miles from Masterton, there is a large extent of level land of superior quality, extending to the gorge. The cream of this country has been until lately in the hands of the Natives, the Government having only recently purchased it. The road crosses the gorge near the junction of the Tiraumea and Manawatu Rivers. Very little is known about the Tiraumea valley; but, judging from information gathered from Natives, it is evident that there is a

considerable extent of level country which is totally unknown to Europeans, and even to many of the Maories themselves. The road through the bush opens up about 100,000 acres of good country. In the centre of the bush the road skirts two clearings, viz., Te Hawera and Tutakara. Te Hawera contains about 200 acres of flat grassy land, and Tutakara about 400 acres.

Having thus reached the Manawatu Gorge from the eastern side, as has already been done from the western, the general description of the Wellington Province is now complete.

#### GENERAL QUALITY OF LAND, AND CONDITIONS OF SALE OF PUBLIC LANDS.

In order to describe the general quality of the unsold Crown lands in the Province, it will be necessary to take the different districts separately.

In the district on the left bank of the Wanganui River, the character of the country is that of a succession of table flats, separated from one another by gullies with streams flowing through them. The flats and their northern slopes are mostly covered with fern or scrub, while the southern slopes are generally wooded. The soil is, for the most part, of good quality, though in some places the flats are replaced by narrow clay ridges with precipitate sides.

The Parae-Karetu block, situated between the Turakina and Rangitikei Rivers, contains some very good fern land along the valley of the Turakina, and extending some distance back from it over the low hills. There is also some fine undulating fern and grass land towards the north-east corner of the block, and some rich, flat, heavily-timbered land in the valley of the Porowai. The remainder of this block is nearly all timbered, more or less heavily. The block contains 40,000 acres, and the soil varies, but its general character is good, and much of the land is well suited for agricultural settlement.

In the Manawatu district there is still a good deal of bush and some open land for sale. In the case of the former, the soil is of the richest quality, and in that of the latter, the higher parts of the land are well adapted for laying-down in grass, while the low-lying portions will, after drainage, which is easily practicable, become valuable agricultural farms.

The large tract of country extending along the west coast, in a southerly direction from the River Manawatu to the Waikanae, and reaching back to the sum-



mit of the Tararua ranges, the purchase of which the Government is at present negotiating, may be said to include almost every variety of land. This tract has a coast line of fifteen miles, with a depth inland of from two to twelve miles. The land near the coast is light and sandy, but further back it gradually changes into a belt of fine, rich, level land, much of which is wooded, the timber being of valuable quality. Towards the ranges the country becomes more hilly, but nearly all of it is suitable for grazing.

A large extent of land situated in the Seventy-Mile Bush, between Masterton and the Tararua range, will probably in a short time be open for sale. The timber and soil are both of good quality, and the land is nearly all level. Three other blocks of land lying to the east of Masterton are of good quality, consisting partly of bush and partly of undulating open land. There is also a considerable extent of land, suitable for pastoral purposes, still available for sale, situated on the East Coast, towards the boundary of the Province.

The conditions of sale of public lands may be briefly stated.

The price of unproclaimed land generally in the Province is 10s. an acre, the whole of the purchase-money having to be paid at the time of making the application; but land which, from its broken character or for other reasons, is not deemed fit for agricultural purposes, may be classed by the Waste Lands Board as pastoral land, and may be purchased as such, in blocks of not less than 640 acres, at 7s. 6d. an acre.

A considerable area of land in the Manawatu district has been set apart for sale on deferred payments. The price varies from £1 to £2 an acre, and is payable by equal instalments extending over a period of five years, the purchaser being required, within a period of two years, to erect a house on his selection, of not less than £10 in value, and to fence, or clear, or crop, or lay down in grass, one-tenth part of the land. This scheme of selling land on deferred payments has been very successful, most of the sections having been taken up.

Other blocks of land, as they are surveyed and pegged out into sections, are from time to time put up for sale by public auction, the upset price being usually £1 an acre for country lands, and proportionately higher prices for town allotments. The purchaser at auction has to make an immediate payment of one-tenth of the purchase-money, and the balance at the end of a month. Any sections offered at

auction, but not sold, can be taken up afterwards at the upset price for cash.

#### WHAT THE UNSOLD LANDS ARE AVAILABLE FOR.

Most of the unsold agricultural lands in the Wellington Province are well adapted for occupation by small farm settlers. In the case of the bush lands, the settler can frequently add to his income by the sale of the timber for fencing and firewood, besides which, such land, when cleared and broken up, always produces a heavy crop. A considerable portion of the bush, which is being rapidly made accessible by roads, would pay well to saw; and as there is a large and growing demand for timber, the establishment of many additional saw-mills, which would afford employment to a considerable number of labourers, may be shortly anticipated.

Much of the open land produces large quantities of Native flax, and mills exist in several parts of the Province for the preparation of the fibre. With the exception of the purely pastoral country, nearly all the land in the Province is fitted for agricultural purposes, the bush land being the richest. The districts on the West coast, and in the vicinity of Masterton in the Wairarapa, are suitable for growing wheat, barley, and other cereals, as much as 60 bushels of wheat and 100 bushels of oats having been produced to the acre in the vicinity of Wanganui. Potatoes, turnips, beetroot, mangold wurzel, and every other description of English vegetable production can be raised in abundance. In many parts of the Province, the soil is well adapted for hop growing. All kinds of English fruits grow luxuriantly, as well as some of those which require a milder climate. The cultivation of the vine is being carried on to a small extent in the vicinity of Wanganui, and excellent wine has for some years past been made at the Roman Catholic mission station, sixty miles up the river. Figs and loquats also grow abundantly in the same locality.

#### IMPROVED AND UNIMPROVED LANDS IN PRIVATE HANDS, OPEN FOR SALE.

As a rule there is but little land, either improved or unimproved, in this Province open for sale to persons of small capital. When small holdings are parted with, they are generally purchased at a considerable advance on the original cost; and in nearly all cases the price of land in private hands, either improved or unimproved, is con-

siderably higher than the price paid to the Crown in the first instance. From £3 to £5 an acre is sometimes given for country lands fenced but not otherwise improved. In other cases, from £5 to £8 an acre has been obtained. Persons of small capital coming out to the Colony would not, therefore, find it prudent to pay such prices for land in this Province, and the plan of purchasing surveyed Crown lands at £1 an acre is much more advisable.

#### IMPROVED FARMS.

Speaking generally, there are not many "improved" farms in this Province to be rented. In some of its settlements of older date, such as Wanganui and the districts adjoining it, improved farms occasionally come into the market, and can be bought or leased with a right of purchase; but as a rule such properties are not available for immigrants of moderate means, inasmuch as the value set upon them is necessarily high. As has been already said, new arrivals intending to buy land find it usually best to purchase from the Government; and it may be added that those who have the enterprise to commence their career in the most outlying districts, find such a course to be far the most advantageous in the end, as they pay only a very low price for their land at the first, and it rapidly increases in value, not only because of the improvements made upon it, but owing to the progress of the settlement itself in population and production.

It should, however, be understood that immigrants possessed of capital can either lease or buy improved farms or station properties, at such prices as would enable them, by judicious management, to secure an excellent return for the money invested. The amount of capital required in such cases is considerable, and the immigrant with from £500 to £1,000 would find it his best course to begin at the beginning—buy Crown land and make an "improved farm" for himself. There is no hardship involved in settling upon land in the outlying districts of the Wellington Province. Already every necessary and many of the luxuries of life have been brought within the reach of the settler in any part of it. In fact, the Province is now more or less a settled country, with roads and bridges throughout its length and breadth.

#### CHIEF ARTICLES OF PRODUCTION, AND THEIR GENERAL VALUE.

Subjoined is a list of the chief articles of production in this Province, with the Wel-

lington prices for export annexed. It is to be noted that in the case of wool, flax, and a variety of other articles, their value varies much, according to the extent of the demand in the English market.

Wool.....	8d. to 2s per lb.
Flax ( <i>Phormium tenax</i> ).....	£18 to £22 per ton.
Tallow.....	£35 to £38 "
Sheep skins.....	6d. to 2s. 6d. each. "
Hides.....	15s. to 18s. "
Butter (salt).....	6d. to 1s. per lb.
Timber.....	12s. to 22s. per 100 ft.
Furniture timbers	20s. to 30s. "
Preserved meats (in tins).....	4d. per lb.
Fat cattle.....	20s. to 23s. per cwt.
Sheep.....	8s. to 15s. each.
Horses.....	£5 to £50 "
Store cattle.....	40s. to 60s. "
Hams and bacon	7d. to 9d. per lb.
Colonial ale.....	£5 to £7 per hhd.
Potatoes.....	£4 to £5 per ton.

Cereals:—A limited quantity of wheat and barley is grown, but not by any means sufficient for local consumption.

#### NEW INDUSTRIES.

In addition to the industries already existing in the Province, there are several others which could with advantage be at once established, because there is abundance of the raw material on the spot, and the greatest facilities for its manufacture. Such, for example, would be the establishment of mills for the manufacture of cloth, blankets, and woollen fabrics generally. In the wool-growing districts of the West Coast, in the vicinity of Wanganui, there are several places where the establishment of such mills would meet a recognized want, and at the same time prove a profitable enterprise. Flour-mills also either are or will shortly be wanted in several localities. In many districts admirably adapted for wheat growing, the settlers still import their flour at a heavy extra cost for land carriage; but as agriculture is more pursued, wheat will be grown, and flour-mills become necessary.

The flax industry, though already established, is capable of large extension, and there is no reason to doubt that when the present low price obtained for the material in Great Britain has risen, many new mills, with the latest improvements in machinery, will be established and carry on a profitable trade. In many cases a rope manufactory might be added to the flax-mill with advantage and profit. This latter industry exists to a very slight extent, but there are many



openings for carrying it on in an extensive way, with the certainty of reaping a large return. The manufacture of woolpacks, sacking, and wrapping paper could be established with advantage in this Province.

The port of Wellington is well adapted as a site for ship-building operations, and the same may be said of Wanganui. This industry was formerly pursued on a small scale in Wellington, but of late it has fallen into neglect. At Wanganui the industry is about to be established.

The manufacture of preserved meats has been commenced with success, but this industry will in time admit of large expansion. As the Wellington Province is capable of producing enormous quantities of fruit, the manufacture of jellies, jams, and preserves would undoubtedly prove a remunerative industry. Large cheese factories, on the American co-operative system, might be profitably established in the country districts, the great richness of the pastures insuring an ample supply of the finest milk. The establishment of many other industries would prove remunerative. For instance, the cultivation of beetroot for the manufacture of sugar or spirits therefrom, would, in the opinion of competent judges, be a very profitable industry. A Joint Committee of both Houses of Parliament reported favourably, in 1871, on a proposal that the Government should aid a Company in acquiring a block of land in the Colony for the purpose of growing beet and manufacturing sugar, and should give a bonus for the production of the first 250 tons of sugar. It was then suggested that a block of 3,000 acres would be required, and that about 200 skilled labourers from Germany, with their families, should be introduced to carry on the cultivation and manufacture.

At Island Bay, three miles from the city of Wellington, there is a splendid opening for a fishery and fish-curing establishment. This was tried on a small scale some time ago, but was partially abandoned for want of capital on the part of the projector. The fish procurable along the coast and in the Straits are warehou, moki, butter-fish—all which are good for curing—also hapuku, ling, and rock cod. The number of fish to be caught is practically unlimited, and the curing process can be cheaply accomplished. The local demand for the cured fish has always much exceeded the supply—when such supply existed; and were the enterprise to be established on a large scale, any amount of the cured article could be disposed of elsewhere.

# AMOUNT OF TIMBER, AND THE MEANS OF OBTAINING IT.

Proportionately to its area, there is no other Province in New Zealand which possesses so large an acreage of valuable timber as Wellington, or which affords equal facilities for obtaining it. In the eastern division of the Province, there is a block of land now opened up containing 14,000 acres of good sawing bush, chiefly red pine. This bush is accessible by road from Masterton. Stretching north from this block, there are 30,000 acres of similar bush; while the extensive forest, plain, or undulating country which extends to the Manawatu Gorge, and from the Tararua range towards the East Coast, must contain nearly six hundred square miles of valuable country, covered with sawing timber. This bush is accessible on the western side of the Province from Palmerston and the Gorge. As has already been stated in the general description of the Province, Palmerston, the centre of the bush country in that quarter, is connected with Foxton, the shipping port, by a tramway which conveys the timber to the vessels for shipment. A good road also opens the bush country to the Gorge and thence through to Masterton. Practically, then, this bush country, with its almost inexhaustible supply of timber, has been made accessible, but the construction of the railway will open it up more completely. The export of sawn timber from the Wairarapa and the Upper Manawatu to the city of Wellington and other places, will in the future be large. The timber consists chiefly of totara, matai, rimu, kahikatea, and rata. The saw-mills throughout the districts mentioned produce largely, but the demand for timber is so great that many times the present number could be established with advantage.

Timber exists in greater or less quantity in various parts of the back country on the West Coast; while the open stretch of land along the coast between Wanganui and Patea has a background of forest which will be opened up as roads are made into the interior. Scarcely sufficient is known of this country to judge of the commercial value of its timber; but the bush further north to the rear of Mount Egmont, which is now being opened up by the formation of the mountain road to New Plymouth, contains much good sawing timber.

The districts previously described will, however, afford an abundant supply of timber, both for building purposes and for public works, for many years to come,

beside furnishing a large quantity for export to the Middle Island, in the shape of railway sleepers, piles, and telegraph poles.

#### MINERALS.

No mineral discoveries of importance have been made in the Wellington Province; but it is not therefore to be concluded that the Province is deficient in such means of wealth, as those parts of it where it is most reasonable to expect that metals and minerals of economic value will be found, are the least known. Coal is known to exist in the Upper Wanganui; and gold has been found there, but whether it exists in payable quantities yet remains to be ascertained, as the Tuhua country, where there is the greatest probability of a gold-field being discovered, is in the hands of the Natives, who have hitherto declined to allow the country to be prospected. In the south-eastern parts of the Province—notably within a few miles of the city of Wellington, at Torawiti—the country has been prospected at different times, and small quantities of the precious metal discovered, but no payable field.

There are extensive limestone cliffs in the neighbourhood of the Manawatu Gorge.

#### MILLS AND FACTORIES.

Although manufacturing industries in the Province of Wellington are as yet in their infancy, yet within the last few years considerable progress has been made in that direction. In the city of Wellington, one large iron foundry employs from 35 to 40 hands on the average, and other smaller establishments of the same kind exist. In the town of Wanganui there is also a foundry. Saw-mills are becoming numerous in the Province, and already turn out a large quantity of sawn timber. These mills are at work in the Upper Hutt, the Wairarapa, the Upper Manawatu district, the Middle Rangitikei district, and in one or two places north of Wanganui. As the demand for sawn timber is great, and the supply of bush country unlimited, there are good openings for the establishment of new saw-mills. Most of these mills are worked by steam power. There are two steam saw-mills in the city of Wellington, where the manufacture of doors, sashes, &c., is carried on upon an extensive scale. In the same place there is a steam flour-mill. There are two flour-mills in the town of Wanganui, three at Rangitikei, and four in the Wairarapa; some driven by steam, and some by water power. On the West Coast, there are about ten flax-mills, which, when

in operation, employ a considerable number of hands, principally boys, who receive wages ranging from 10s. to £1 per week, with food. At present, however, most of these mills are idle, owing to the low price of flax. There are several rope-walks, the one at Ototoho, near Waitotara, being the largest. In the city of Wellington and its immediate vicinity there are five fellmongeries and two tanneries, one of the latter employing sixteen or eighteen hands. There are likewise several fellmongeries at Wanganui. Boat-building on a small scale is carried on at Wellington and Wanganui. Soap-making is also pursued in Wellington and Wanganui; and in the former place bone-dust is manufactured by machinery. The brewing industry is largely carried on in the Wellington Province.

#### THE KINDS OF LABOUR IN DEMAND.

In the country districts of the Province, farm and station labourers, shepherds, stockmen, ploughmen, fencers, sheep-shears, carpenters, blacksmiths, sawyers, and married couples used to farm and dairy work, obtain employment immediately, and are largely inquired for. In the Upper Manawatu district, good bushmen, axemen, and sawyers are especially wanted. In the towns, from the large extension of building operations, carpenters, bricklayers, painters, plumbers, &c., are in demand; while, owing to the large extent of public work being carried on in the shape of roads, railways, and bridges, there is ample employment for unskilled labour. Good shoemakers and tailors do well in the towns. A limited number of pattern-makers, boiler-makers, moulders, and mechanical engineers are also required. Blacksmiths who can shoe do well in any part of the Province. Female domestic servants are wanted in all parts of the Province; and those possessed of previous experience are certain to obtain permanent situations at high wages.

It may be said, as the result of inquiries made on the spot, that the demand for labour is everywhere very great, and that the supply as yet has been entirely insufficient. Any man acquainted with a trade which is pursued here to any extent, can at once find remunerative employment. The essential thing is, that the new comers should be able to do some one or more things well, the doing of which is required in the Province.

#### RATES OF WAGES.

As the result of careful inquiries instituted by the writer in every part of the Province, it has been found that a singular



equality in the rates of wages prevails throughout the country districts. As a rule, skilled mechanics get higher wages in the chief town, but this is more than counterbalanced by the advantages possessed by the mechanic settled in the country for investing his savings profitably, and quickly getting into business on his own account. The following may be taken as the current rates :—

Married couples, £50 to £70 per annum, and found.

Farm labourers, £40 to £60 per annum, and found.

Carpenters, 12s. per day.

Blacksmiths, 10s. to 12s. per day.

Bricklayers, 10s. a day.

Painters, 11s. a day.

Sawyers, 8s. 6d. to 11s. 6d. per 100 ft. (making an average wage of from £3 to £4 a week).

Fencers earn from £2. 10s. to £3. 10s. per week, working by the piece.

Sheep shears, 20s. per 100.

Road labourers, 6s. to 8s. a day.

Good ploughmen, 25s. a week.

Shoemakers, 10s. a day.

Tailors, £3 to £3. 10s. a week.

Journeyman bakers, £2. 10s. to £3 per week.

Tanners, 11s. a day.

Saddlers, 10s. a day.

Pattern-makers, boiler-makers, and moulders, 10s. to 14s. a day.

Millwrights, 12s. a day.

Labourers in stores, £2 to £2. 10s. a week.

Female domestic servants, 9s. to 15s. per week, and found.

Barmaids, £52 to £75 per annum, and found.

First-class hotel cooks, £2 a week, and found.

In the Upper Manawatu district, the average earnings of the sawyers working in the bush are £4 a week; and such of the Danes and Scandinavians (who, in their own country, would earn probably only a few shillings a week) as are skilled in the use of the axe, make £4 a week as squarers of timber. At Rangitikei, there is a great want of married couples for farms and stations, and they can command from £70 to £100 a year, and found.

In the Wairarapa district, the demand for all kinds of country labour is as great as on the West Coast.

#### THE FOOD OF WORKING MEN.

In scarcely any instance is the system of allowing rations pursued in the Wellington

Province. If a married couple is engaged on a farm or station, they share in the comfort and abundance of the house, without restriction. If an unmarried farm labourer is working for a small farmer, he usually sits at the same table with his master and mistress; if employed on a large farm, or on a station, he lives with the other men, who all take their meals in the kitchen of their employer's house, or in a separate building. These meals are abundant in quantity, and provided entirely without reference to rations. Beef, mutton, and pork, wheaten bread, potatoes, vegetables, milk, tea, butter, and cheese are the usual staples of a working man's meal in the Wellington Province. Compared with the poor and stinted diet to which he has been accustomed at home, the agricultural labourer will find himself in a veritable land of Goshen.

#### PROVINCIAL PUBLIC WORKS IN PROGRESS, OR LIKELY TO BE COMMENCED DURING THE NEXT TWO OR THREE YEARS.

In addition to the General Government public works connected with railways, roads, and bridges, which are either already going on or are contemplated in this Province, and the current Provincial works now in course of execution, there will be numerous extensive and important public works executed by the Provincial authorities within the next two or three years. It is proposed to expend on roads for the opening up of Crown lands at present unoccupied, no less a sum than £90,000, as soon as the necessary labour can be obtained, besides which a further sum of £30,000 will be expended on bridges on the east and west coast of the Province. A system of roads is in course of being constructed, to lead to and open up the valuable land recently acquired in the Parae-Karetu block, situated inland of the Turakina River. An entirely new inland line of road, fifty miles long, from Paikakariki to Manawatu, will also be constructed, at a cost of £25,000; in addition to which, when the necessary surveys have been completed, a new line of road will be made to the West Coast, along a route avoiding the Paikakariki hill. Bridges are to be constructed across the Rangitikei, Manawatu, Ohau, Waikawa, Otaki, and Waikanae Rivers, on the same coast.

In the Wairarapa, and on the East Coast, roads opening up communication with Castle Point, and giving access to large blocks of land in the eastern division of the Province, are to be formed; also a road from Tinui

to Alfredton and the Forty-Mile Bush; and another from Masterton to Alfredton, through Wangahua. Some further work in completion of the lower valley road is also to be done. Bridges will be erected over the Ruamahunga, Taueru, Kaumangi, Abbott's Creek, and the Waiohine Rivers.

It is possible that there will be a considerable expenditure in widening and deepening the Wanganui River, and in providing wharfage accommodation there; both of which works will involve the employment of a considerable amount of labour.

These important public works by no means include all the sources of employment to immigrants which this Province will for several years afford. The railway to be constructed by the General Government from Wellington to the Wairarapa, and thence by the Manawatu Gorge to the West Coast and Wanganui—portions of which are already in hand—will involve the employment of a large amount of labour; while it must inevitably follow that the opening up of new country by making main roads will necessitate the construction of numerous district roads and bridges by the local Highway Boards.

Besides this, the Municipal Corporation of Wellington contemplate reclaiming a large area of land from the Te Aro end of the harbour, while another extensive work of reclamation at the Thorndon end, on part of which it is proposed to erect new Government offices, is already in progress.

Altogether, the Wellington Province can offer abundant employment to those who may make it their future home.

#### ADVANTAGES OFFERED BY THE PROVINCE TO LABOURERS, MECHANICS, AND SMALL FARMERS.

The working man of whatever class, whether he be road labourer, farm servant, or skilled artisan, who emigrates from Great Britain to the Wellington Province, does so with the certain prospect of rising some steps in the social ladder within a comparatively brief period, if he chooses to exercise ordinary industry and frugality. The farm or station hand, with his high wages and food provided besides, can easily save enough in two or three years to enable him to purchase a small quantity of land and settle upon it. The progress made by such a man is gradual but sure. He fences his land, and if it be open country, can at once burn off the fern and sow it in grass. Then a few sheep or stock are placed on it, a

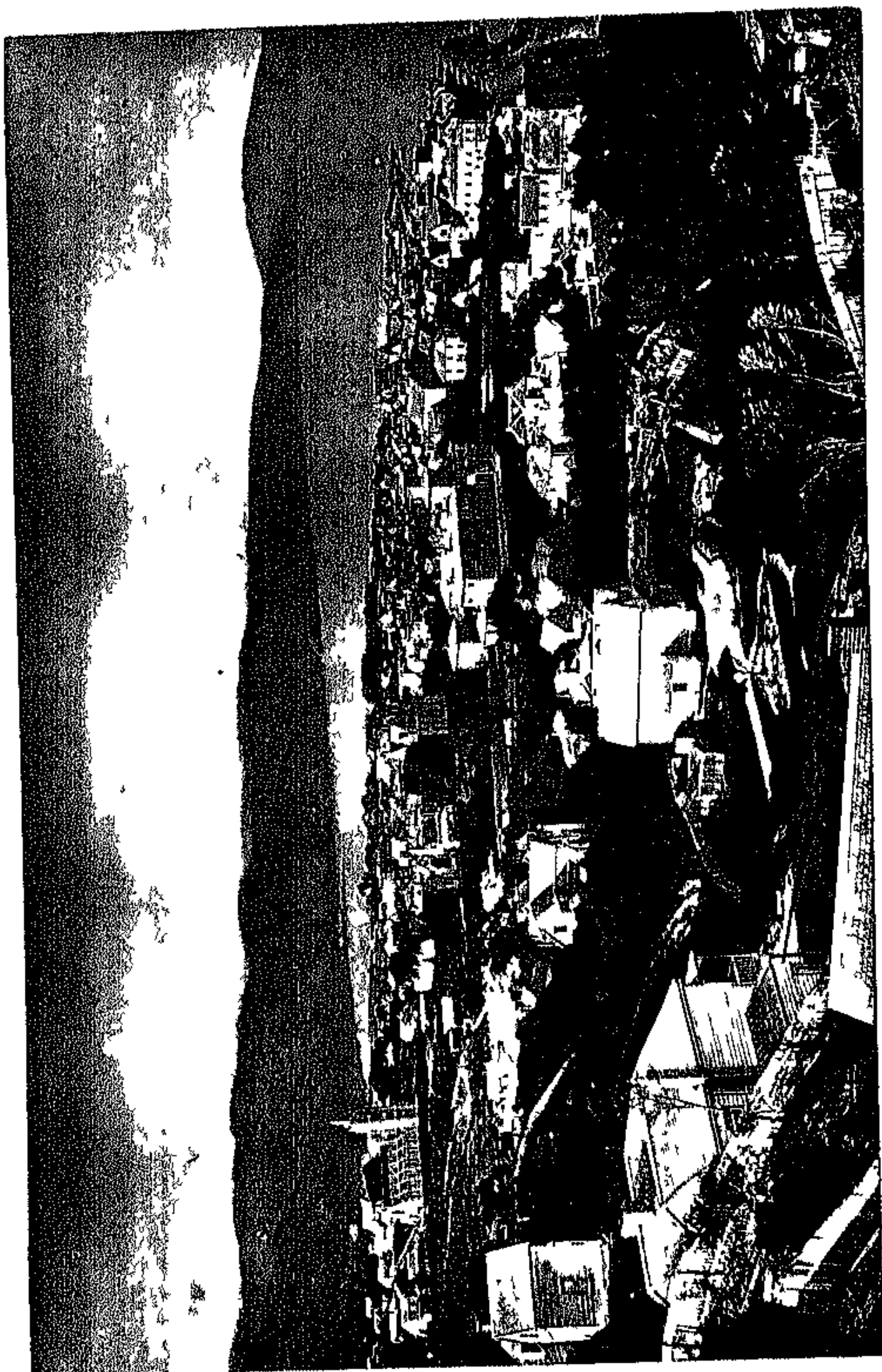
rough house is built, and in the course of a year or two this hard-working settler finds himself in possession of a comfortable farm. The system of selling small surveyed sections of agricultural land, varying from 40 to 200 acres each, on deferred payments, which exists in this Province, holds out many advantages to settlers of the class just described, as they can thus obtain five years' credit and no interest is charged.

The small farmer coming out to the Province and starting from a higher level than the labourer, through being possessed of a little capital, may look forward to becoming the owner of many broad acres, and under any circumstances will never need to dread "the rent day."

The mechanic in this Province not only earns much higher wages than in Great Britain, but he also finds abundant opportunities for employing his savings with advantage; and with his energies unfettered, the clever artisan is almost certain to carve out his way to the position of a master workman and employer of labour. As the Province progresses, many opportunities are afforded for the establishment of new industries, and in the majority of cases it is found that the men who avail themselves of such opportunities are practical artisans; who having, by dint of economy, saved money, are thus enabled to embark upon enterprises which result in the acquisition of a competence for themselves and their families.

To reap these benefits in full the newly-arrived immigrant should be prepared to leave the town and seek his fortune in the newer settlements which exist throughout the Province. It is true that certain classes of mechanics could only find profitable employment at their own trades in the towns, and in such cases it would of course be advisable that they should remain there. But in the case of the great body of immigrants, farm labourers, station hands, road labourers, carpenters, bricklayers, blacksmiths, &c., it will be found that they will do better by settling either in the country or in some of the numerous little villages scattered over it, than by remaining in or near the town. Higher wages for skilled artisans and mechanics may sometimes be obtained in the town, but the country offers other and greater advantages. In the first place, greater economy can be practised in the country. The cost of the chief necessities of life, such as beef, mutton, potatoes, vegetables, &c. is less than in the towns; while to the married man with a family, the opportunities afforded of keeping cows, &c.; and growing vegetables





wonderfully reduce the domestic expenditure. This being the case, the country labourer or mechanic soon saves money; bit by bit he acquires property, which quickly increases in value with the progress of the settlement; until in a few years the country village has developed into a bustling, prosperous little town, and he finds himself a comparatively rich man, with numerous comforts around him, partly owing to his own exertions and partly owing to that general advance which has been made by the district in which he has cast his lot. Many of the now wealthy settlers in this Province have thus risen from small beginnings.

In England, the labourer or operative who puts his small savings into a bank, can only at best look forward to the dreary prospect of accumulating a shilling or two a week, and in the end of having a few pounds to his credit. He is thus almost without hope, and in many cases ceases to persevere in an effort which only leads to such meagre results. In New Zealand, and notably in the Wellington Province, the case is entirely different. The sentiment of hope is stimulated to an extraordinary degree. Every pound saved represents the means of making some small investment, which ere long will become reproductive, so that the sober and industrious man gets on, not merely because he puts by a portion of his earnings, but because the small investments he is thus enabled to make, rapidly increase in value, and lay the foundation of his ultimate prosperity.

#### PRICES OF FARM STOCK.

At Wanganui, which is the centre and shipping port of a large grazing and sheep-producing country, and from which port shipments of cattle are made to Auckland and the Middle Island, the prices of sheep and other stock vary according to demand and season, always falling after shearing. Fat wethers, weighing 60 lb. average from 9s. to 16s., reaching their highest value in October. Cattle average from 15s. to 18s. 6d. per cwt., say from £5 to £6. 10s. a head, fetching the best prices in August and September.

At Marton, in the Upper Rangitikei, horses four years old were lately selling at £30 apiece; heavy draught horses, broken to harness, £50; milch cows, £5 to £12; steers, two years old, £3 to £4; bullocks, four years old, £5 to £6; draught oxen, £10 to £15; sheep, 8s. to 15s., according to quality.

Marton is the largest inland centre of population for the Rangitikei district, and

inasmuch as periodical auction sales are held there, the prices thus obtained may be said to rule all over the adjoining districts. The price of farm stock varies slightly in different parts of the Wairarapa. At Greytown milch cows are quoted at £5 and upwards, while at Masterton they range from £6 to £12. Common hacks fetch an average price of £5 at Greytown. At the same place, store cattle, two years old, sell for £2. 10s. each; over that age, £3. Fat sheep bring 8s. to 16s., and ordinary, 6s. to 10s., at Masterton.

#### PRICES OF THE ORDINARY NECESSARIES OF LIFE.

In the country districts, the price of flour is 18s. to 19s. per 100 lb.; potatoes, 3s. to 5s. per cwt.; tea, 3s. to 3s. 6d. per lb.; sugar, 6d. to 7d. per lb.; butter, according to season, varies from 6d. to 1s. Beef, mutton, and potatoes are usually to be obtained at lower rates in the country than in the town, a larger quantity being taken at one purchase; but, on the other hand, articles which require land or water carriage, such as tea, sugar, flour, and general groceries, are usually about 10 per cent. higher in the country than in the town. In the capital town of the Province, all articles of ordinary clothing average 15 to 20 per cent. above English prices; in the country, the increase is about 30 per cent.

The following are the retail prices in the city of Wellington:—

Beef	...	from 1d. to 4d. per lb.
Mutton	...	" 3d. to 4d. "
Pork	...	6d. per lb.
Veal	...	6d. "
Lamb	...	3s. to 4s. per quarter.
Flour	2d. per lb. or 15s. per 100 lbs.	
Potatoes	vary according to season, from 4s. to 6s. per cwt.	
Onions	scarce, 2d. per lb. or 10s. per cwt.	
Cauliflowers	2s. to 4s. per doz. according to supply, and 4d. and 6d. each retail.	
Cabbages	2d. each.	
Butter	6d. to 1s., according to season.	
Tea	from 2s. to 3s. per lb.	
Sugar	coarse 4½d., fine 5½d. to 6d. per lb.	
Coffee	1s. 6d. to 1s. 8d. per lb.	
Rice	3d. to 4d. per lb.	
Barley	4d. per lb.	
Cheese	from 8d. to 1s. per lb.	
Bread	3d. to 4d. per 2 lb. loaf.	
Soap	4d. to 6d. per lb., according to quality.	
Candles	1s. per lb.	
Imported jams, preserves, and oilmen's		



stores of every description, are about 30 per cent. above English retail rates.

Ironmongery, holloware, &c., are considerably higher than English prices, owing to the heavy cost of freight, &c.

#### ECCLESIASTICAL ORGANIZATION AND PROVISION FOR RELIGIOUS ORDINANCES.

The Wellington Province affords abundant provision for religious ordinances; and the emigrant, to whatever denomination he may belong, need be under no apprehension that he will be deprived of those facilities for religious instruction and worship to which he has been accustomed in the old country. Comfortable, and in many cases handsome, churches and chapels have been erected in all the towns; while in outlying districts, where the population is too sparse to support a clergyman, occasional services are held in school-houses, by clergymen visiting the districts for the purpose, the same building being used by various denominations. So rapid, however, is the progress of settlement, that such makeshift services only last for a year or two, by which time the numbers of at all events one of the religious denominations become sufficiently numerous to erect a church and enable a clergyman to settle in the locality.

There are perhaps few towns in the United Kingdom of the size of Wellington which afford church sitting accommodation for so large a proportion of the inhabitants. It contains fifteen churches and chapels, belonging to ten denominations, namely:—The Episcopalians, Roman Catholics, Wesleyans, Primitive Methodists, Presbyterians, Church of Scotland, Congregationalists, Baptists, Plymouth Brethren, and Jews. The members of the Catholic Apostolic Church also constitute a small congregation, which meets in a private house.

The principal place of worship belonging to the Episcopalians is the Thorndon Cathedral, a building capable of seating 600 or 700 persons, and having a small peal of bells, a rare thing in a New Zealand church. It is the diocesan church of the Bishop of Wellington, the Right Reverend Dr. Hadfield, the incumbent of the parish (St. Paul's) being the Rev. Mr. Harvey, M.A. St. Peter's Church is situated at the opposite or Te Aro end of the town, and contains sitting accommodation for about 600 persons. The Venerable Archdeacon Stock, B.A., is the officiating clergyman. The Roman Catholic Cathedral (St. Mary's) is built on a commanding site at Thorndon, and is a handsome Gothic structure, with

sittings for about 600. It is the church of the Right Reverend Dr. Redwood, Roman Catholic Bishop, who is assisted in his ministrations by the Reverend Fathers Petit Jean and Cummins. A church, called St. Mary of the Angels, has been built at Te Aro, for the accommodation of the Roman Catholic inhabitants of that part of the city, its minister being the Reverend Father O'Reilly. There are eight Sisters of Mercy connected with St. Mary's Convent, Thorndon. They conduct a first-class boarding school at the convent; and they have charge of "The Providence," a boarding school for Maori children, as well as of a numerous-attended day-school in the Te Aro district of the city.

The Wesleyans possess three churches, one at Thorndon and two at Te Aro, the handsomest and most commodious being in Manners Street, the three furnishing sitting accommodation for 1,300 persons. The Primitive Methodists have erected two churches, with sitting room for 500. The Presbyterians have a church in Willis Street, under the pastoral care of the Rev. J. Paterson; and a congregation of the Church of Scotland, under that of the Rev. J. Ogg, possess a building on Lambton Quay, near the centre of the town. The Congregationalists, Baptists, Plymouth Brethren, and the Jews have each built themselves suitable places of worship.

The town of Wanganui and the surrounding country, especially that lying to the south, is unusually well supplied with the means of religious ordinances. There are in the town four churches, belonging to the Episcopalians, the Presbyterians, the Methodists, and the Roman Catholics, the largest being the Presbyterian, a fine Gothic building, seated for about 600, and presided over by the Reverend John Elmslie, M.A. The Episcopal Church, of which the Reverend T. E. Tudor is the clergyman, is seated for 300. A handsome chapel has recently been erected by the Methodists, capable of accommodating 300 persons. The Roman Catholic Church is seated for 220. In the districts north of Wanganui, up to Patea, religious services are held at intervals by the town clergyman; and the same may be said in the case of the district extending ten miles south of Wanganui and the same distance up the river. In the principal part of the latter district—Matarawa—two small churches have been erected, one of which is occupied by the Presbyterians, the other by the Episcopalians and Methodists unitedly. In Turakina, fifteen miles south of Wanganui, there is another Presbyterian

Church, under the Reverend John Ross, and also a small Roman Catholic chapel, the latter being visited occasionally by the incumbent in town. At Marton, there are three churches, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Methodist, which enjoy the ministrations of the Reverend Mr. Towgood, the Reverend Mr. Stewart, and the Reverend Mr. Reeves. There is a Presbyterian church also in each of two districts adjoining Marton, known as Western and Upper Rangitikei. In Lower Rangitikei, the only clergyman as yet in the field is the Reverend James Doull (Presbyterian), who has a neat little church in one part of the district, but conducts services in the public hall in the town. In the rising townships of Manawatu, small churches have been built. At Greytown, in the Wairarapa, there are three places of worship, belonging respectively to the Episcopalians, Wesleyans, and Roman Catholics; and at Masterton there are Episcopalian and Presbyterian churches. The population at the Hutt possesses eleven churches and chapels, three belonging to the Episcopalians, an equal number to the Wesleyans, two to the Roman Catholics, two to the Primitive Methodists, and one to the Presbyterians. The country districts nearer Wellington, Karori, Makara, Johnsonville, and Porirua, are all well supplied in this way.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

The educational system in operation in this Province may be very briefly explained. Under an Act of the Provincial Council, passed in 1871, the Province was divided into ten districts, and a central Education Board formed, composed of ten members, being one representative from each district. The office of the Central Board is in Wellington, the secretary to the Board (who is also a member of it) being entrusted with the general administration of the business connected with the working of the system. In addition to the secretary, there is an Inspector of Schools, who makes periodical examinations of the schools throughout the Province.

The schools are open free to all children between the ages of five and fifteen years, no fees being charged. There is, however, a capitation tax of five shillings per head (payable by the parents) on all children between the ages stated who attend the Government schools, or who, while not so attending, are not being educated elsewhere. Children being educated at private schools are exempted from the operation of this capitation tax. Such tax is in no case

to exceed £1 for any number of children in one family.

The expenses of the educational system are chiefly maintained by means of a property tax of one halfpenny in the pound on the actual value of all property. Large educational reserves of land have also been made, from which, ultimately, the Board will derive a considerable income.

A sound elementary English education of a strictly undenominational character is given in the Government schools. Religious instruction of an unsectarian kind is given every day during the first half hour of the school attendance, but it is optional with the parents whether the children attend during that period.

There are fifty-nine Government schools at present open throughout the Province, and seven others on the point of being opened. A staff of seventy teachers and assistants, male and female, do the work of instruction, at salaries ranging from £100 to £265 per annum. The number of children at present attending these Government schools is 2,812. Although the existing means of education are inadequate to requirements, this evil is about to be remedied, as it is proposed to devote £9,000 to the erection of school-houses and teachers' residences.

In addition to the above there are numerous private schools both in Wellington and Wanganui, as well as in some of the country districts; while the Wellington College and Grammar School affords the means of obtaining a higher class of education than can be had in the Government free schools, to which latter scholarships are given each year. It may be said, on the whole, that within a very brief period the educational facilities afforded in this Province will be of the most satisfactory kind.

#### CHARITABLE AND BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS.

The only organization of the kind which exists in the Province is the Wellington Benevolent Institution, which is incorporated under an Act of the Wellington Provincial Council. Its members consist of all subscribers of not less than 10s. per annum, and all donors of £10. Five members are nominated by His Honour the Superintendent.

The business of the Institution is managed by a Committee consisting of a Chairman and Treasurer, Hon. Secretary, and a considerable number of members, including the clergy of nearly all the different denominations.



The funds of the Society are made up by voluntary subscriptions, and in cases of distress, relief is given in money, or by payment of rent, or by an order on a storekeeper for provisions. Each case is carefully inquired into before relief is given. Relief is, however, given to people of all religious denominations. The general prosperity enjoyed by all classes of the community renders the occurrence of cases requiring charitable relief comparatively few; still, some such do arise, and in those instances the Benevolent Institution does much good. The amount expended by the Society in relief during 1873 was £300.

An annual vote for charitable purposes is made by the Provincial Council, the expenditure of which is left to the Inspector of Police, acting under the control of the Resident Magistrate. Cases of distress calling for relief, which come before the Resident Magistrate, can be dealt with out of this fund, with the consent of the Provincial Government.

#### HOUSE RENT IN TOWNS AND COST OF ERECTING COTTAGES IN THE COUNTRY.

The large accession which has been made to the population of the city of Wellington within the last year, has caused houses of every description to become scarce, and rents to rule high. An ordinary four-roomed cottage may be had at from 9s. to 12s. a week; cottages of the same size, but of a superior kind, at 11s. to 15s. Comfortable six-roomed houses, in good situations, range from £40 to £60 a year, and larger establishments from £50 to £100. These rates also prevail in Wanganui.

In the country districts, the cost of erecting cottages varies according to locality and the supply of timber. In the Palmerston district, where timber is plentiful, a rough two-roomed cottage (including a brick chimney) could be built for about £40. Speaking generally, the cost of a four-roomed cottage, of a plain kind, in the country districts, would be about £70. A cottage of the same size, but of a better description, lined, papered, and fitted with the ordinary conveniences, would cost £150; and one rather larger, £200. The cost in town would be about the same. The prices of erecting cottages in the towns has of late much increased, owing to the very high wages of carpenters, painters, and bricklayers, and the rise in the price of timber.

#### BUILDING SOCIETIES.

Although the high rents for houses in towns are heavily felt by people with fami-

lies, yet the frugal settler need not be long subjected to this inconvenience. Throughout the Province, Building Societies, upon the model of similar institutions at home, but altered in detail so as to suit the circumstances of the Colony, have been established, and furnish a ready means to the working man of erecting a house for himself, and thus avoiding the necessity of paying rent. A member of such a Society usually pays 5s. a share per month until he desires to borrow, and he then pays 10s. per share per month for every £50 borrowed, which, with the original subscription, makes 15s. per share per month, until the loan is paid off. For instance, supposing a man is occupying a four-roomed cottage, for which he is paying 12s. a week rent. He saves £50, and buys a piece of land large enough for a site for a cottage. He then joins a Building Society, takes shares, and borrows £150 from it upon the security of the land and the house to be erected, and builds himself a cottage. The payments to the Society will amount to about £2.5s. a month; and in the course of seven years the whole debt, principal and interest, will have been paid, and the house and land become his own property, free from all charge, while during that period he will have actually had to pay a less sum per month to the Building Society than he would have had to pay as rent to a landlord. The method of working just illustrated was that of the Wellington Mutual Investment Society.

In the city of Wellington there has been a succession of Building Societies, all of them equally successful. There are at present three in existence — two recently started, and the other of rather older date, called the Wellington, Trust, Loan, and Investment Company (Limited). The latter, however, as its name imports, extends its operations over a wider area than is usually covered by a Building Society. It has a capital of £100,000, divided into 10,000 shares of £10 each. This Company owes its origin to the Wellington Mutual Investment Society, which carried on the operations of an ordinary Building Society for nine years in a highly successful manner, and then transferred its business to the Trust and Loan Company. The numerous benefits which the Mutual Investment Society bestowed upon the community, may be judged of by the fact that during the period mentioned, a sum exceeding £835,000 passed through its bank account, much of which was advanced in small sums to members for building purposes. One of the other newly-started associations alluded to is called the Wel-

lington Building Society. Its objects are to enable its members to purchase freehold properties either in town or country, by means of monthly contributions; to enable persons possessed of land to erect buildings thereon; to grant loans on the security of freehold or leasehold property; and to afford a safe and profitable investment for savings. The shares are of the value of £60 each, and the subscription on each is 5s. per month, with an entrance-fee of 2s. 6d. per share. As soon as the funds of the Society amount to a share, or to a sum of £60, the same is awarded to the highest bidder by auction, at a monthly general meeting. Any member who purchases, pays 10s. per share per month towards redemption. The other Society is named the Equitable Building and Investment Society, and is similar in character, only varying in the amount of its payments, and the period over which they extend.

The Wellington Trust, Loan, and Investment Company (Limited), affords to persons the opportunity to accumulate sums of £50 or the multiples thereof, or to purchase land and build thereon, or to purchase houses, by small monthly payments; also to obtain advances on real estate in sums of £50 or multiples of £50, all such advances to be repaid by monthly instalments, including both principal and interest. Supposing a man to borrow £50 for five years, his monthly payment to clear the loan, principal and interest, would be 21s. If the loan were repaid in six years, the monthly payments would be 18s. 3d. each, and proportionately less for eight or ten years. The balance of the loan, moreover, may be paid off at the end of the first year by a sum of £41. 10s., at the end of the second year by £32. 6s., and so on.

The Company also makes advances on freehold and leasehold estates, by way of mortgage, on such terms as may be agreed upon, the borrower to repay by instalments.

There are three Land and Building Societies at Wanganui. The Wanganui and Rangitikei Land and Building Society was established in January, 1868, and will terminate about 1875. In December, 1873, it had £11,200 invested—or, in other words, it had advanced that sum to members.

The Wanganui District Land and Building Society was instituted in January, 1873, and by November of that year had £12,000 invested.

The Wanganui Equitable, Land, Building, and Investment Society (Permanent), was started in February, 1871, and at a late date had £15,775 invested. The operation of these Societies, which have their head-quarters in Wanganui, extend over the whole of the districts situated between Rangitikei and Patea, a distance of sixty-five miles. The country settlers have experienced much benefit from the facilities thus afforded for obtaining loans for building purposes.

In April, 1873, the Wairarapa Permanent Investment and Loan Association was started, and up to a recent date 600 shares had been taken up, while the applications for loans have been very numerous. The Society advances sums of £50 and upwards to its members for building purposes, the loan being repaid at the rate of 5s. per share per month. Members who confine themselves to paying the monthly subscriptions without borrowing from the Society, receive 6 per cent. compound interest for their deposits, which are retained until they amount to £50, being the value of a share. This is the principle adopted by most Building Societies; and it will be seen that, although the main and primary advantage of such Societies is the facilities which they offer for obtaining small loans for building purposes, yet should a member find it inexpedient to build, his money will not be lying idle, but will be producing a fair rate of interest.

## THE "MANCHESTER" SPECIAL SETTLEMENT.

LEAVING the Manawatu Gorge and going westward along the projected main railway line to the Rangitikei River, the traveller passes for twenty miles through a stretch of rich level land, known as the "Manchester" block. This block is twenty miles in length and about eight miles in width, with an area of 106,000 acres, and being the sub-

ject of an interesting and important colonizing operation, which promises a considerable success, is worthy of more than a passing notice.

In December, 1871, the Hon. Colonel Fielding, as representative of an English company, presided over by the Duke of Manchester, and called "The Emigrant



and Colonist's Aid Corporation," visited New Zealand, after going through the Australian colonies, his object being to find a field for the commencement of colonizing operations. Finding in New Zealand a climate eminently suited to the English constitution, a soil abundantly fertile, internal communications fairly developed already and rapidly progressive, and, above all, a Government anxious to foster any reasonable scheme for the settlement of people on its unoccupied territory, Colonel Fielding had little difficulty in selecting a favourable site, and making terms with the Colonial and Provincial Governments.

Negotiations resulted in the purchase of this block at 15s. per acre, paid for by bills bearing interest at 5 per cent., and maturing at different intervals over ten years. The Corporation undertook to introduce to the Colony, and to settle on the land, 2,000 people within six years. The Government, on the other hand, was to provide free passages for these people from England, and to find work, in the formation of the railway line through the property, or on other public works in the neighbourhood, for a current number of 200 labourers. The Provincial Government made a conditional agreement to expend a sum not exceeding £2,000 per annum for five years, to assist in forming by-roads. The scheme hung fire awhile on Colonel Fielding's return to England; but the work of colonization has now commenced in earnest, and the result is anxiously watched: for, if successful, private capital and enterprise will be certainly directed to the formation of similar settlements in some of the large tracts of country from time to time falling into the hands of the Government by purchase from the Natives.

The settlement is at present in its infancy, the first party of immigrants having arrived in the Colony early this year. But as within two months there were 250 people on the ground, the town of Fielding, which is the central town of the block, on the projected railway line, and the base of the Company's operations, has become a busy scene, and we will pause there to touch upon the prospects of these immigrants on the one hand, and of the Company itself on the other, in working out their scheme.

The immigrants, who are, so far as the first importation is concerned, all of the working class, are brought by steamer seventy miles and by tramway twenty-five miles to the boundary of the Company's land without any expense to themselves. Then they are housed for a day or two in a large dépôt built by the Company, in the

small town of Palmerston. There they are supplied, and thence they are removed by carts on a good road ten miles on to the Fielding township, the cost of this supply and carriage, which is very small, being charged against each family. Arrived at the township, each family is drafted off into small detached two-roomed cottages of wood, with brick chimneys, each cottage standing in an acre of ground. The cottage costs about £30, the land is valued at £10, and by payment of a rental of 7s. per week, the immigrant obtains the freehold of both land and cottage in three years. Or an alternative arrangement is offered if, at the end of six or twelve months, the immigrant desires to take a country section from 40 to 100 acres, and give up the tenement in the town. In that case, if he desire it, a similar cottage will be erected for him on his country section to be held on somewhat similar terms, and the new cottage will be credited with one-half of the rental already paid for the old one. The day after the immigrant reaches his location, he can go to work on whatever he is best suited for. The work at present consists of road-making for the Government and for the Company, the sawing of timber, erection of houses, fencing, well-digging, brickmaking and bricklaying, bushwork of all kinds, and the hundred-and-one industries which the presence and settlement of a number of people and of those attracted by them necessitate. The English labourer is, as a rule, rather clumsy at first with the axe, and sometimes gets easily dispirited on finding his progress less rapid than that of a colonial hand beside him; but the hardworking willing hand soon learns, and even the most inexperienced can at once earn from 7s. to 9s. a day at axe work if amenable to instruction; while practised hands and those who have a specialty, such as carpentering, brickmaking, bricklaying, or saw-mill work, earn from 12s. to 15s. a day.

As the block is chiefly timbered land, roads, or wooden railways—which are the cheapest and best roads in a level bush country—must be formed before profitable occupation can take place. This necessity forces the temporary location in the towns, and there will be a periodical swarming out from the several townships as lengths of road are made to open up new lands for settlement. The immigrant taking up country land is, according to the Company's regulations, to occupy it at an annual rental of 2s. 6d. per acre for blocks of from 20 to 100 acres; and at the end of seven years, or at any time before, he has a right to purchase the fee-simple at £3 per acre. As the

block is very level, and very lightly timbered over a large proportion of its area ; as the soil is of the richest quality, and very well watered ; and as the formation of the main railway line and of by-roads by the Government and the Company will give the greatest facilities of access to all parts, opening up markets for timber, and stock, and any other produce, the country settler can rely on making a very valuable property before the end of the seven years.

So much for the immigrants' part of the question. As for the Company, its prospect of repayment and of profit is founded chiefly on the enhanced value given to their lands by population and the construction of railways and roads. So clearly is this prospective value realized and recognized by the older settlers, that there is already a pressure to obtain the Company's available land at £2 or £3 per acre cash, and a large number of the township sections have been sold for immediate settlement, to old colonists, at prices varying from £10 an acre on the outside of the township to £25 the quarter-acre sections in central positions.

The Company has also a mine of wealth in the timber, so soon as the railway which is being constructed allows it to be sent to market ; and while that is being done, the local demand and the Government requirements for the railway works will give employment to labour and machinery during the next two years. After that, for many years, the ring of the axe, the whirr of the saw-mill, and the rush of frequent trains of timber-laden trucks should tell of a busy and thriving people reaping the richest harvest the land will ever carry at one time. It will take many years to reap the timber even on the Company's block, and that is merely the outskirts of a great forest plain. Given a population, therefore, and cheap transit, the future of this part of the country is assured. So soon as the timber is removed, English grasses, cereals, roots of all kinds, hops, vines, and all sorts of fruit-trees, grow with the utmost luxuriance, and with little labour ; so that the man who cuts down his timber to-day becomes the purveyor of food to the reaper of the next belt of timber a few years hence, besides growing wood, tallow, hops, and, perhaps, fruits for jams for other markets.

It is difficult to leave this interesting subject. We may look back some three months when two or three surveyors' tents

were the only evidences of human habitation. We see now some thirty wooden houses already risen out of the flax and grass. We hear the busy hum of human voices, of men, of women, and of children unburthened with the cares of life. The ring of the axe, the echo of the hammer, and the crash of falling timber, sound everywhere. The sharp cracks of the drivers' whips attract attention to horse and bullock drays toiling along the rough flat with people, or luggage, or stores, or timber, or gravel for the newly-made roads. We notice a cloud of steam from the already-fired brickkiln—the earnest of future homely firesides. Dense volumes of smoke appear, denoting a bush clearing made ; or the thin spiral columns rise from among a cluster of tents, or from beside the houses of mushroom growth, telling of family dinners in course of preparation. The eye is caught by long vistas newly cut through the virgin forest ; and we note the thin double line of wooden rails just laid on the fresh-turned earth, the commencement of a snake-like progress which ends only with the utter destruction of the beautiful forest, as one stately tree after another is brought down and submitted to the mighty power represented by the huge unshapely boiler which lies on its side hard by.

Dropping the curtain over this scene, making use of our experience of the rapid progress made in similar spots, and drawing on the imagination to depict the change which the next ten years will produce, it will not be unreasonable to picture this infant town grown into a vigorous and beautiful manhood—with bells ringing the little ones “unwillingly to school,” with the whistle of the locomotive, and the hum of manufactories ; with gay shops and busy footpaths ; with carts and carriages bowling along well-kept roads ; with houses far and near nestling among a younger race of trees, surrounded by the weeping willows, the cypress, and the pine, in bright contrast with each other, and flanked by apple and peach-loaded orchards ; with a steeples here and there, suggesting some degree of thankfulness for so bountiful a return for easy labour : while far back in the landscape the dark rich melancholy forest will be dimly seen, waiting its turn for destruction, and seeming to shrink for protection to the very feet of the distant snow-clad range.



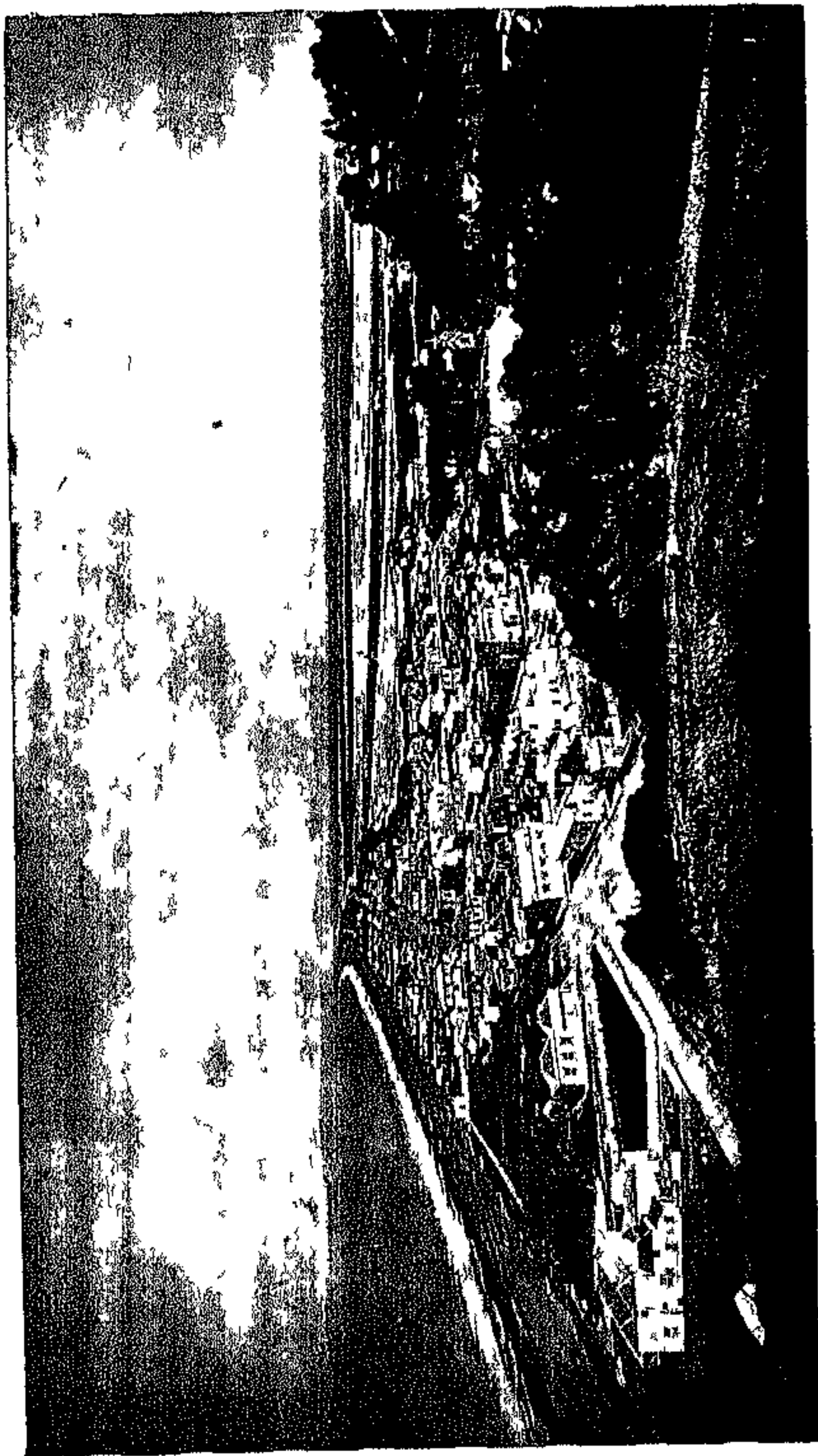
## THE PROVINCE OF HAWKE'S BAY.

A LITTLE more than a century has passed since the shores of Hawke's Bay were first seen by European eyes. On the morning of the 12th October, 1769, the good ship *Endeavour*, under the command of Captain Cook, cruising southwards along the east coast of the North Island of New Zealand, came in sight of a small island ahead, which bore a marked resemblance to Portland Island, in the English Channel, and was accordingly named after it. About noon the vessel came up with it, and, sailing along its shores, the sailors saw Natives assembled in great numbers there, as well as on the adjoining mainland. Shortly, a canoe appeared, with four men in her, and came within a quarter of a mile of the ship; it did not seem certain whether the men's intentions were warlike or peaceful. Through the medium of a South Sea Island native named Tupia, whom Captain Cook had brought with him, and who spoke a dialect which the Maoris understood, they endeavoured to persuade the savages in the canoe to come alongside the ship, but did not on that occasion succeed. This was the first attempt at intercourse between the Ahuriri Natives and the outside world.

Subsequently, however, some of them were induced to approach the ship in a friendly manner. Presents were made to them, and some "stinking fish"—the only Hawke's Bay product of that date—was purchased, though quite valueless, with the view of initiating a trade. It is, perhaps, worth while to record the first authentic instance that we possess of a business transaction between Europeans and the Hawke's Bay Natives. We give it in Captain Cook's own terse and graphic language:—"I observed," he says, "that one man had a skin thrown over him, somewhat resembling that of a bear, and being desirous to know what animal was its first owner, I offered him for it a piece of red baize, and he seemed greatly pleased with the bargain, immediately pulling off the skin and holding it up in the boat. He would not, however, part with it till he had the cloth in his possession; and as there could be no transfer of property if, with equal caution, I had insisted on the same condition, I ordered the cloth to be handed down to him, upon which, with amazing

coolness, instead of sending up the skin, he began to pack up both that and the baize which he received as the purchase of it, in a basket, without paying the least regard to my demands or remonstrances, and soon after, with the fishing boats, put off from the ship."

Portland Island, as we have mentioned, was so named from its similarity—as viewed from the northward—to Portland Island, in the English Channel. The bay was named Hawke's Bay, in honour of Sir Edward Hawke, the First Lord of the Admiralty. The only other name given by Captain Cook to any of the topographical features of the coast was that of Cape Kidnappers, at the southern extremity of the bay, and by this, as might be expected, there hangs a tale. It is as follows:—On Sunday, the 15th, shortly after the commercial transaction above referred to had taken place, a canoe came alongside to sell fish. It was purchased, and trade was renewed. "Among others who were placed over the ship's side to hand up what we bought," says Captain Cook, "was little Tayeto, Tupia's boy. One of the Indians, watching his opportunity, suddenly seized him, and dragged him down into the canoe, two of them held him down in the forepart of it, and the others with great activity paddled her off, the rest of the canoes following as fast as they could. Upon this the marines, who were under arms on deck, were ordered to fire. The shot was directed to that part of the canoe which was furthest from the boy, and rather wide of her, being willing rather to miss the rowers than to hurt him, upon which the others quitted their hold of the boy, who instantly leaped into the water and swam towards the ship. The large canoe immediately pulled round and followed him, but some muskets and a great gun being fired at her, she desisted from the pursuit. The ship being brought to, a boat was lowered, and the poor boy was taken up unhurt, though so terrified that for a time he seemed to be deprived of his senses. Some of the gentlemen, who traced the canoes to shore with their glasses, said that they saw three men carried up the beach, who appeared to be either dead or wholly disabled by their wounds. To the cape off which this unhappy transaction hap-





pened, I gave the name of Cape Kidnappers."

After Captain Cook's visit there was a long interval during which the shores of Hawke's Bay remained unvisited by white men. In the early part of the present century it began to be a resort for whalers, some of whom from time to time settled down among the Natives, and became what are known as Pakeha-Maoris. If they were men of energy and capacity, as was not unfrequently the case, they attained, as a rule, positions of influence, and their influence, in spite of all that has been said to the contrary, we believe was, on the whole, beneficial. Mission stations were established by the Church of England in 1843, and by the Roman Catholics in 1851.

It is not possible to fix any date at which it can be said that the settlement of Hawke's Bay was founded. In the cases of the Canterbury, Otago, and Cook Strait settlements, they have this date definitely fixed by the arrival of the ships bearing to their shores the first colonists. Hawke's Bay, however, was settled differently. Its natural advantages of soil and climate, as soon as they became known, drew settlers, in ever increasing numbers, from the South. As early as 1848, blocks of Native land were being taken up extensively as runs, in spite of the precariousness of a tenure dependent altogether on the goodwill of the Natives. This description of irregular settlement had gone to such a length by the end of 1850, that it was felt by the then Government that the time had come for endeavouring to acquire a landed estate from the Natives. In the December of that year, accordingly, Mr. Donald McLean, now Native Minister, went to the district as Land Purchase Commissioner; and the purchase, from the chief Te Hapuku, of some blocks in the interior, including those which now form the extensive and very valuable Pourerere and Homewood estates, was effected simultaneously with the purchase of Scinde Island, now the site of the town of Napier, and the surrounding district, from the chief Tareha Te Moananui. From this date forward Hawke's Bay became daily better known, and every month brought new settlers into it. The Land Purchase Department at the same time extended its operations, and further large tracts of country were acquired.

On the 5th April, 1855, the township of Napier having been laid out in sections, was sold by auction. The duty of naming the streets devolved on the Hon. A. Domett (the author of *Ranolph and Amohia*), then Crown Lands Commissioner in the Province; and to his literary and scientific

enthusiasm, we suppose, it is that we owe it that they bear the names of Shakespeare, Emerson, Browning, Brewster, Dalton, &c.

During the years between 1850 and 1860, the strides made by the town and district were extremely rapid. In 1858, the European population had reached about 3,000. The community then began to feel itself able to stand alone, and a general desire was expressed for the local management of its affairs. The result was, that it was in that year constituted a "new Province," with its Superintendent and its Provincial Council.

The Natives resident in the Province itself have always maintained the most friendly relations with the European settlers. Even in the earliest times, when they largely outnumbered the latter, their disposition towards them was uniformly pacific. In 1857, an intestine quarrel broke out between two sections of the Hawke's Bay Natives. A skirmish took place, in which some half-dozen people (all, of course, Maoris) were killed. Some alarm being felt by the European settlers as to the possible ultimate results of the struggle, Moananui, the leading chief of the successful faction, wrote as follows to the local newspaper:—"Hear us. You have nothing to fear from us. Do you suppose that we are so fond of fighting, that we are anxious to have two enemies, the Pakeha as well as Te Hapuku? No, our own quarrel is sufficient. Let the settlers remain in peace amongst us. We would not act treacherously towards the people of our country. Were we to turn on them, we should be shutting up the road by which we receive many advantages." There is much more than idle profession here,—there is close reasoning. Moananui deserves much credit for his sagacity in perceiving that he could best allay the suspicions of his European neighbours, by showing them that his tribe were perfectly alive to the personal advantages which they derived from the maintenance of friendly relations with them. Te Hapuku's faction were equally decisive in their professions of friendship towards the Pakeha. The struggle, we may remark, ended by the retirement of the latter to their hereditary lands at Poukawa, some thirty miles inland, leaving Moananui and his party in possession of the extensive and valuable Ahuriri Plains.

The only other instance of hostilities within the settled districts of the Province, occurred in October, 1866, when a band of about a hundred Natives, belonging for the most part to the tribes inhabiting the south-eastern districts of Auckland, led on

by one of their prophets, who told them that the town of Napier would be given over to them, came down and located themselves at Oamaru, about eight miles inland, with the view of making that their base of operations. No effort was spared to represent to them the madness of their proceedings. It was, however, found to be impossible to do so effectually. The matter ended by the Hawke's Bay Natives joining with the European settlers in making an attack upon them, which resulted in the annihilation of the band, all who were not killed having been taken prisoners. Now that the European population has become three or four times as numerous as the Natives, hostilities are never dreamt of. Hawke's Bay, in that respect, is as secure as Canterbury or Otago. Of late, too, it has come to be looked upon by settlers in other parts of the Colony as highly eligible for residence and investment, and during the past year there has been a very large influx of South Island capital.

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION, RESOURCES, INDUSTRIES, &c.

The Province of Hawke's Bay lies between the Provinces of Auckland and Wellington, having the former to the north of it, and the latter to the south and west. An imaginary line alone divides it from Auckland. The boundary on the west is formed by the Ruahine range, the distant and, in winter, snow-capped summits of which form a beautiful feature of the landscape. The area of the Province is about 3,000,000 acres—rather greater than that of Lincolnshire, Leicestershire, and Nottinghamshire together; and its physical features may be described as to some extent like those of the three counties—the Ahuriri plains resembling the alluvial lands that form the basin of the Trent, and equaling them in almost unsurpassable fertility; while much of the undulating country in the southern part of the Province resembles the best pastoral districts of Leicestershire. The northern part, though still excellent sheep country, is generally more broken.

Napier, the port and chief town of the Province, is built on a peninsula about seven miles from the southern end of the bay. The peninsula terminates to the north in a hill, or rather a group of hills closely conjoined. On the flats at their base are the banks, shops, churches, Government buildings, &c., and studded picturesquely along their sides and tops are the dwelling-houses of the wealthier townspeople, surrounded by lawns and gardens, and now

and then embosomed in foliage. Few towns have a more prepossessing appearance as they are approached. The curve of the coast line to the southward, as viewed from the hill, never fails to recall to those who have travelled in Italy, the aspect of the Bay of Naples. The resemblance is due, no doubt, in no small degree, to the fact that Napier is pretty certain to be viewed under a sky as cloudless, and in an atmosphere as clear and as balmy, as those of the shores of the Tyrrhenian Sea itself. The present population is about 3,000. It has four churches, one of them, at least, a building with some pretensions to architectural beauty. There are now four banks, including one on the eve of commencing operations. There is an Athenæum, which compares very favourably with similar institutions in other parts of the Colony. Indeed, societies and institutions for the promotion of culture and the provision of amusements, artistic and intellectual, flourish in Hawke's Bay. The schools, both elementary and higher, are numerous and efficient. There are three newspapers—two daily, and one bi-weekly. The shipping accommodation of the port, as it at present stands, is inadequate for the rapidly-increasing trade of the place, and works are now in progress which will, within a year, greatly increase it. Large vessels cannot enter the inner harbour. They lie with safety in the roadstead; and steamers trade regularly, and discharge freight and passengers at the wharfs in the inner harbour.

Following the main south road inland from Napier, we find ourselves shortly in the centre of the Ahuriri plains. They are about 80,000 acres in extent, and they form a district which is not surpassed in productive capacity by any district of similar size, even in Great Britain. Crops of all descriptions can be grown on them, in the highest perfection, without the use of manure. Wheat is found to succeed better after root crops, otherwise it grows too rankly. The portion of them devoted to pasture, which is at present the greater portion, is found to be capable of keeping from five to seven large, long-woolled sheep per acre all the year round. They are watered by three large rivers, which also receive their drainage. They possess, further, an advantage of almost priceless value, for at any point of them, by an expenditure of from £20 to £50, an unfailing reservoir of the purest water can be tapped. An artesian pipe is driven 50 ft. or 100 ft. into the earth, and water gushes forth, to be thenceforward like the springs of nature itself in *omne volubilis ævum*. It





SUBURBS OF NAPIER.

is obvious how greatly the fact of water being thus readily obtainable, must render these plains adapted for occupation by small holders. The proprietors of sections in their centre, far away from any river, are as well situated, as regards watering their stock and irrigating their land, as if they lived on the banks of one. For all descriptions of industry, too, for which an abundant water supply is an essential requisite—and what industry is there for which it is not?—the incalculable importance of these wells is manifest. The plains are as yet held to a considerable extent in large blocks. The process of subdivision, however, has now fairly set in, and will no doubt make rapid progress as soon as the railway is opened, and, with the increased facilities for carriage, cropping becomes more profitable than the depasturing of sheep.

There are several thriving townships in different parts of the plain. Meanee is the nearest to the port, and is the most advanced. A new road, which has recently been opened, brings it within three miles of Napier, and will give a great impetus to its progress. There are, also, Olive, Havelock, and Hastings—the latter as yet only in its infancy, but owing to its situation in the very centre of the most fertile district, and to the fact of its forming the second station on the railway line in course of construction, it is a township of great promise. In the three first-named townships there are places of worship, public halls, shops, hotels, and the usual surroundings of a settled neighbourhood. Roads traverse the plains, and, as we have remarked, a railway, which is nearly completed, runs through their centre. It is now, moreover, about to be continued so as to connect them with the inland districts to the south.

Following its proposed course, which is that of the present main south road, through one of the valleys which open out on the plains, a district is reached in which hill and dale, with occasional stretches of fertile flats, are picturesquely intermingled. In parts, the hills are forest-clad, and these forests contain timber which is valuable for fencing and building purposes; not, however, in such abundance as the forests further inland. About forty miles from Napier is Waipawa, one of the largest and most flourishing of the inland townships, having its churches, public hall, &c., as have Meanee and Havelock. To the north and east of it is an undulating district of great extent, well suited for agriculture. It has, up to recently, been occupied as sheep-farms, but is now being

divided into agricultural holdings. Waipawa will be one of the stations on the new railway line, and it is to the anticipation of this, no doubt, that the present subdivision of large properties is due. About five miles further on is Waipukurau, also a flourishing township, situated in the centre of a fertile and highly-improved district. To this point a good macadamized road exists, and there is daily communication with Napier all the year round. Thence to Porangahau, twenty-five miles further to the south, the country is occupied for the most part by sheep-farmers, although all good land, and suitable for agricultural settlement. There is a good summer dray road as far as the latter township. From the main road, branch roads strike off east and west at various points, bringing into it the traffic of several large and progressive districts, the most important and extensive being the Ruataniwha Plains and the Seventy-Mile Bush.

This is a forest of enormous extent, with extensive clearings here and there, which are occupied as runs. The forest land belongs now mainly to the Governments of the Provinces in which it is situated. About 250,000 acres of it lie within the boundaries of Hawke's Bay, and of this, a large quantity will shortly be opened up for sale. The bush contains unlimited supplies of the most valuable New Zealand timbers in their highest perfection, and from this fact we are justified in predicting that the district has a great future before it. The railway, as we have already observed, is in course of construction to Waipukurau, which is within fourteen miles of the bush; and from Waipukurau to Takapau, situated at the point where the road enters it, a tramway is now being constructed, and is expected to be finished within six months. When this is done, we have no doubt that saw-mills will spring up in large numbers there, as they have done in other districts in similar circumstances, and the locality will become a thriving and populous one. The land, when cleared, is excellently suited for agriculture, as is the case ordinarily with bush land in New Zealand. Two settlements of Scandinavian immigrants have been formed in the bush during the past two years. They are named Norsewood and Danevick respectively. The settlers are beginning to do well, and are happy and contented. Both settlements are situated on the main line of road through the bush, now near completion. It will form part of the main southern road of the Province, and will afford the means of opening coach com-



munication between Napier and Wellington.

The portion of the Province which lies to the north of Napier is considerably more broken than the southern part, and the country there is used chiefly as sheep-runs. The soil, however, is good; and there are some rich valleys, in which settlement has made considerable progress. Wairoa is the principal township north of Napier. It has some thousands of acres of good level land around it. The communication with it is principally by water, the supplies being carried by small steamers which enter the river.

The inland portion of the northern district is to some extent opened up already by the Taupo Road, by which there is, twice weekly, coach communication with Auckland by way of Taupo and Tauranga, and it will be further opened up shortly by other roads about to be constructed. Some valuable bushes exist there, within thirty miles of Napier, which, when tapped, will afford scope for the profitable employment of a large amount of labour and capital. A good deal of business is already done, by the Napier storekeepers and merchants, with Taupo; and as the number of tourists that annually visit that wonderful region is daily on the increase, there can be no doubt that, ere long, this business will become a very important feature of our trade.

Among the industries of Hawke's Bay, decidedly the most important at present is the depasturing of sheep. Our soil, and in a very special degree our climate, appear to be adapted for the rearing of pure-bred stock of this description in their highest perfection. Owing to the equability of the climate, the growth of pasture during the winter is ordinarily little, and frequently not at all, checked, and from this it arises mainly that the wool of our Lincolns, Leicesters, Cotswolds, and merinos is gradually becoming characterised by that most valuable quality, a very high degree of evenness. The Province is thus already coming to be looked upon as the breeding ground of New Zealand, and as the district from which the best type of stud sheep is to be obtained. The value of last year's clip of wool was between £200,000 and £300,000. Every year, of late, it has been steadily increasing, and a still further great augmentation may be calculated on. The causes of the increase are the spread of English grasses, which bid fair shortly to double the carrying capacity of the majority of the runs, and the improvement of breeds, owing to very extensive importations of pure blood, which are continually being

added to. We have remarked above on another feature of the industry—the subdivision of large sheep-farms into small ones as settlement progresses. It is becoming daily more observable. Cattle-breeding also occupies a prominent place among rural pursuits. Some of our herds are not surpassed by any in the Colony.

As off-shoots of the pastoral industry, we have fellmongeries, soap and tallow boiling establishments, and a tannery. The first have been found to be extremely profitable. At the local tannery, leather of such excellent quality is produced that saddlers in the town pay considerably more for it than they will give for outside products. A large extension of operations is contemplated.

Agriculture is not as yet carried on as extensively as might be desired in the Province. This is certainly not because, taken in itself, it is in any way to be regarded as an unprofitable pursuit, but because grazing, even upon the smallest holdings, is so exceptionably profitable, and requires so little labour. The principal growers of wheat are the Natives, and even with their indifferent style of cultivation, the average yield per acre is scarcely second to that in any Province of the Colony. There are several flour-mills, for the most part worked by water power. No doubt, whenever labour becomes more abundant, agriculture will receive larger attention, and will take that position among our industries which the soil and general suitability of the climate warrant.

Several saw-mills are already in existence in the various bushes in the interior, but they are altogether unable to supply even local requirements. Although the price given for timber now averages from 15s. to 17s. per 100 ft., our main supplies still come from Auckland by coasting vessels. The value of the import, we believe, is about £80,000 annually. The deficiency in the local supply is due chiefly to the high cost of carriage, or, in other words, the scarcity of labour. When the Seventy-Mile Bush, which contains the finest totara in the North Island, in unlimited quantities, is tapped by the tramway, connecting, as it will, with the railway, not only is it certain that the Province will supply all its own wants from that source, but there can be no doubt that an export trade, destined to assume immense proportions, will spring up. The starting of saw-mills in the Seventy-Mile Bush at present affords an excellent opportunity for investment. The other valuable forests in the northern part of the Province

will be shortly opened by roads, and will contribute to the wealth and the labour-absorbing capacities of the district.

As regards miscellaneous industries, there are breweries, the beer from which commands an extensive sale in the Province; two iron and brass foundries, at one of which steam engines, woolpresses, and a variety of implements are manufactured; two or three coach factories; a brick-making establishment; a sash manufactory, where a good deal of elaborate machinery is used; besides the establishments of watch and clockmakers, tinsmiths, plumbers, &c. It will thus be seen that employment in all ordinary branches of industry is afforded, and in nearly all at present there is a demand for labour.

When it is considered what are the industries for which the soil, climate, &c., of Hawke's Bay are adapted, in addition to those already carried on, and which there is consequently a prospect of seeing established, they will be found to be very varied. The growth of sugar-beet, and the manufacture of sugar from it, has been long contemplated, as it is certain the rich lands in the neighbourhood of Napier are especially suited to this industry; indeed, a local company would have entered upon it but for the want of labour, which has checked this and so many other industrial pursuits. Woollen factories are proving successful in Otago and Nelson; and there is no reason why one, if established here, should not prove equally successful. The culture of the hop (for which we believe the Seventy-Mile Bush land is especially suited), of the vine and the tobacco plant, the manufacture of jams and sauces, and many other pursuits of a like character, all hold out excellent prospects of profit to any who may think fit to engage in them.

The following rates of wages have been furnished as those ruling in the various trades and industries in the Province:—

*Tradesmen, per Day of Eight Hours.*

Carpenters...	10s. to 11s.
Bricklayers	10s. to 11s.
Painters	10s. to 12s.
Blacksmiths	10s. to 12s.
Tailors	8s. to 10s.
Ropemakers	13s.
Shoemakers	10s. to 12s.
Brickmakers and Masons...	11s. to 12s.
General Labourers	6s. to 8s.

*Farm Labourers, per Year (all found).*

Married Couples	£60 to £70.
Single men	£50 to £60.
Single women (dairymaids)	£20 to £30.

*Female Domestic Servants per Year.*

Cooks	£35 to £45.
General Servants and House-	
maids	£25 to £40.

Navvies employed on the public works get from 7s. to 10s. per day; farm labourers from 20s. to 30s. per week (all found); shepherds from £50 to £70 per annum, also all found. Ploughing by the acre costs from 14s. to 20s., according to the nature of the ground to be ploughed. Printers get 13d. per 1,000.

A very large amount both of public and private work is necessarily allowed to stand over at present, pending the arrival of fresh immigrants. We estimate, at a rough guess, that the employment on the public works in the Province now under weigh, and to be commenced within the next six months, would alone absorb at least 800 labourers the day they were landed, without in any way affecting the rates of wages. In addition to the Paki Paki Railway, on which there is as yet much work to be done, there are among the General Government works about to be commenced, the Waipukurau Railway, the tramway from Waipukurau to the Seventy-Mile Bush, and the metalling of the road from Norsewood, in the Seventy-Mile Bush, to the Manawatu Gorge. In addition to these works, there are those already commenced or proposed to be initiated by the Provincial Government, and for which about £45,000 was appropriated by the Council last session. They include the erection of new wharves, the reclamation of the swamp and of land adjoining the railway line at the Spit, besides a large amount of road construction, &c. Without a very considerable addition to our labour supply within the year, about half of this appropriation will have to go back to the Treasury, as it would not be possible to expend it reproductively. The number of private works in the way of draining, clearing, building, &c., which also stand over, is very great.

As we have given in a tabular form the rates of wages ruling in the Province, it may be desirable to do the same with regard to the cost of living. The subjoined figures represent the estimated cost of the necessities of life, taken on the average all the year round:—

Bread, per 4 lb. loaf...	9d. to 10d.
Beef, per lb.	3d. to 5d.
Mutton, per lb.	2d. to 4d.
Butter, per lb.	3d. to 1s. 6d.
Tea per lb.	2s. 3d. to 3s.
Sugar, per lb.	5d. to 6d.



Coffee, per lb.	...	1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d.
Potatoes, per ton	...	£2. 10s. to £4.
Coals, per ton, about...	£2. 10s.	
Firewood, per ton	...	15s.

The total amount of Government land open for sale in the Province is about 800,000 acres, and the price is 10s. in some districts, and £1 per acre in others, the purchaser selecting the block he desires to occupy. The best of the open land has been purchased, though a good deal of very fair quality is still available. The bush land is that, however, which offers most inducements to intending settlers. In some bushes no selection has been made as yet.

The soil is excellently adapted for growing crops of all descriptions, and the forests abound in valuable timbers. A block of this bush land, 10,000 acres in extent, adjoining the Ruataniwha plains, has been set aside for sale on the deferred payments system, at a price of 10s. per acre. The terms on which this land may be obtained are as follows:—The intending purchaser must send in an application to the Commissioner of Crown Lands for the Province of Hawke's Bay, accompanied with a deposit of one-fifth of the purchase money. He will thereupon receive a license to occupy the land. In order that he may be able to exchange this license for a Crown grant, it is further required of him—1st. That within two years from the date of the issue of the license, he should have built a house of the value of £10 on his section, and should have fenced or cultivated one-tenth of it. 2nd. That he should pay the remaining four-fifths as follows.—The first at the end of the second year from the date of occupation, and one of the other three at the end of each succeeding year till all are paid. The land will then become his own, and he will be released from further liability to the Government in connection with it.

The block referred to is being rapidly taken up. More will be opened as soon as it is disposed of. The advantages offered, including the permission to select, are greater than those offered under the Waste Lands Acts of any other Province in New Zealand.

There is also a very considerable amount of land in private hands, both improved and unimproved, open for sale to small capitalists. Many of the large properties which were purchased years ago, as in the case of the Homewood estate, near Waipawa, which has been alluded to, are being cut up into farms and disposed of. This, as might be anticipated, is taking place mainly in the districts through which the

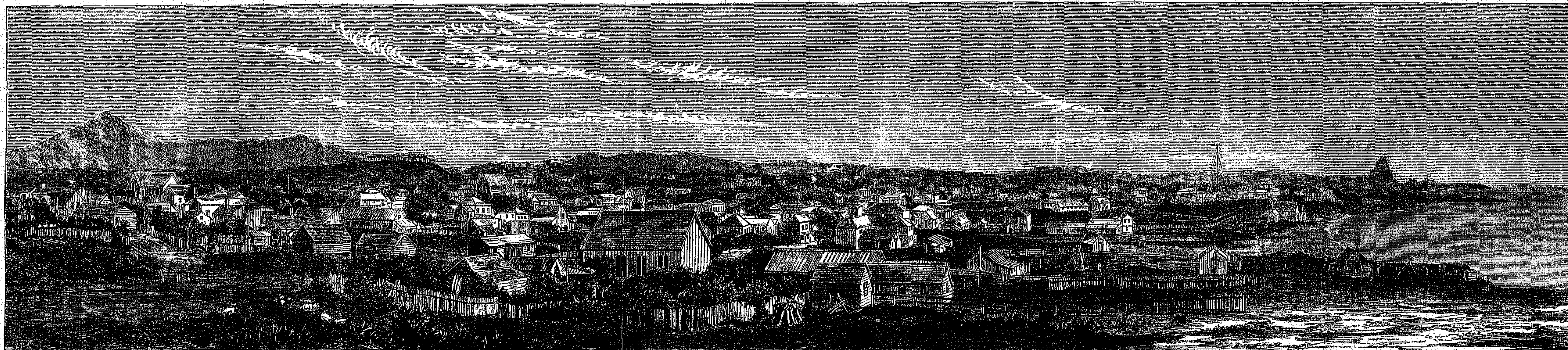
railroad is being carried. Farms are to be had on annual rental, if intending settlers desire that form of tenure. Practically, however, few are thus held, immigrants naturally preferring freeholds.

In Napier, all the principal religious denominations are well represented. The Episcopalians, Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, and Wesleyans all have places of worship there, which are fully attended. Several of the inland townships are also provided with places of worship; and the outlying districts have their spiritual wants attended to by the clergymen of more populous localities, who visit them and hold service periodically.

The necessity for charitable and benevolent institutions is slight, poverty being exceedingly rare. A charitable relief fund, however, exists, provided in part by private benevolence, and in part by a Government grant. It is under the administration of a Board of gentlemen resident in Napier, and no difficulty is experienced in obtaining relief where the genuine necessity for it exists. There are also to be numbered among our charitable institutions a hospital and a lunatic asylum supported by the Provincial Government, and both are under excellent management.

In regard to the educational system in force, the Act provides that the maximum amount of school fees chargeable in common schools shall not exceed 1s. 6d. per week per child, with the provision that not more than four children of one family can be charged for. In the majority of cases the fees actually charged run as low as 1s., and in many even as low as 6d. per week; indeed, in country schools especially, the masters prefer taking the children for nothing to going without them, as by this they get at least the capitation grant from the Government, which in the country is 12s. per quarter, and in the town 9s. All Government schools, moreover, are required to educate orphans or indigent children gratis, on an order from the Inspector. Religious instruction is not permitted to be given during school hours, but may, at the discretion of the managers, be given either before or after them. All schools established either by religious denominations, or by any body of private individuals, which conform to the conditions of the Act, of which the main ones are those above mentioned, are entitled to the Government grants. The appointment of teachers and the general management of the affairs of most of the schools are in the hands of local Committees, subject to the supervision of the Provincial authorities. One of the





PANORAMA OF NEW PLYMOUTH, TARANAKI.



Napier common schools is endowed with an estate which brings in a large sum annually, and a handsome and commodious school building is being erected in connection with it. The teaching in all the town schools, and in most of the country schools, is satisfactory and efficient. A system of inspection was established two years ago, which is found to be producing good results. Considerable reserves were made in all the townships, at the time of sale, for educational purposes, and large additional reserves for the same purpose were set aside by the Council last session. They will become yearly more valuable, and will enable the common school system to be made even more efficient, extensive, and liberal than at present. A grammar school, where the higher branches are ably taught by an Oxford graduate, exists in Napier, and is largely attended. It is owned by a proprietary company, and no effort is being spared to make it take rank with the best establishment of the class in the Colony.

English trees have been very largely introduced into the Province, and a good deal has been done of late towards the introduction of English birds and fishes. Pheasants have become thoroughly acclimatized, and are increasing rapidly. Ducks, partridges, and small birds brought here from time to time are breeding in various plantations where they were turned out. Another large shipment of birds left

England for Hawke's Bay in November, 1874. Trout have been put into the rivers, and arrangements are in progress for obtaining more. Altogether, the settlers are sparing no exertion to make their Province as attractive a place for residence and resort as the best districts in the old country. The rent of two-roomed cottages is 6s. per week, and of four-roomed, 10s.

There is one Land and Building Society in Napier. The number of members is 105, and of shares 666. The value of shares is £20. 16s., and the subscription 2s. per week per share. The term fixed for the duration of the society is four years, but when the shares reach the value of £20. 16s., which generally happens in three and a half years, the society winds up. Money is lent to members at the rate of 8 per cent., they being credited with interest on subscriptions paid up at the rate of 6 per cent., and profit. The last society, which ended on the 23rd of last June, yielded a return of 15 per cent. per annum.

There are two savings banks, in which interest at the rate of 4 per cent. is given on deposits up to £100.

Three Benefit Societies,—the Odd Fellows, Foresters, and Rechabites, — are represented in the Province, and are flourishing.

The Freemasons have a lodge in Napier. They are a numerous and influential body.

## PROVINCE OF TARANAKI.

### EARLY HISTORY OF THE PROVINCE.

THE Province of Taranaki takes its name from the lofty, snow-clad mountain called by Europeans "Egmont," and by the Natives "Taranaki." According to Native tradition, a great chief named Turi, who came from Hawaiiiki in a canoe named *Aotea*, gave names to all the rivers and mountains in this part of the country. From the same source we also learn that the principal tribe of this district came from the same place in a canoe called *Takomaru*, commanded by a chief named Manaiā, who was compelled to flee from his native country on account of a murder

which he had committed. Members of this tribe state that when their ancestors arrived in Taranaki, they found it inhabited by an unwarlike race whom they easily subdued. How long ago this happened they cannot tell; but, from the names of their ancestors, which some of them have committed to memory, and from the many traces of ancient fortifications upon the hills, it was probably some hundreds of years.

The history of this people is one of incessant warfare. The warlike spirit of the race reached its height shortly after the introduction of firearms in 1820. In the fierce intertribal struggles that took place

in the twelve years following that event, the tribe of the Taranaki district was broken, thousands of its warriors slain, and many of its people taken into captivity and reduced to slavery.

The first Europeans who beheld Taranaki were probably Tasman (the Dutch navigator) and his companions, in December, 1642. On the evening of Wednesday, the 10th January, 1772, the renowned Captain Cook first sighted the mountain, which, on the following Sunday, he named "Egmont," in honour of the Earl bearing that title. On the 10th February, 1772, M. Marion du Fresne, a French navigator, made the land here and named the mountain "*Le Pic Mascarin*," after his ship. From this time to 1839, Taranaki was occasionally visited by whalers, some of whom established a station at the Sugar Loaf Islands. In 1831, when the Waikatos, under their great chief Te Wherowhero, made their memorable descent on the district to punish the Ngatiawa for having assisted the fighting chief Rauparaha—and also because Kaeaea, one of their chiefs, had, in a preceding war, crucified the Waikato chief Taiporutu in the gateway of his pa, after taking the pa at Pukerangiora, and killing and devouring several hundreds of its occupants—they proceeded to attack Ngamotu Pa, near the Sugar Loaves. This was garrisoned by 350 Ngatiawa, under their chief Warepori, and six English whalers and traders, whose names have been preserved by the Maoris. These were Barrett, Love, Oliver, Wright, Akers, and Phillips. The besieged, armed with muskets and four small merchant-ship guns, made such a heroic defence that the Waikatos at last retreated with great loss; but after the victory, the Ngamotu defenders, with the other Natives of the district, fled to the South, leaving the country almost entirely without inhabitants.

On the 29th April, 1834, the barque *Harriet*, Captain Hall commander, bound from Sydney to Port Underwood, with a whaling party under a man named Guard, ran ashore on the coast of Taranaki proper, a little to the south of Cape Egmont. For six days the shipwrecked sailors were treated as friends, but on the seventh day a quarrel arose, in which twelve sailors and twenty-five Natives were slain, and Guard, his wife, two children, and ten seamen were made prisoners. Guard and several sailors were allowed to depart on promising to return with powder as a ransom for the others, and he proceeded to New South Wales. Arrived there, Guard prevailed on the Governor to send H.M.S. *Alligator*,

Captain Lambert, with a company of the 50th Regiment, to Taranaki, with the object of rescuing the prisoners. Two villages were destroyed, many of the Natives slain, and the woman, children, and other captives were recovered. Among the stores of the *Harriet* was a quantity of soap: this was taken from the vessel by the Natives, baked in their ovens, and eaten by the Maoris (who were totally ignorant of its nature), with what result to them may be more easily imagined than described.

In the year 1839, a company was formed in England, called the Plymouth Company, the object of which was the establishment of a colony in New Zealand. It was a joint-stock association, which invested £10,000 in the purchase of 50,000 acres of land from the New Zealand Company. Colonel Wakefield, acting for the company, in 1839 found many fugitives from Taranaki on the shores of Cook Strait, and from them he purchased the land of their fathers, from which they had been driven, and to which the dread of their victorious foes prevented their return. About the end of the same year the company's naturalist, Ernst Dieffenbach, proceeded to Taranaki. He found a handful of wretched Natives there, living stealthily on obscure plantations hidden deep in the recesses of the forest, while the rest of the beautiful country was completely desolate. He travelled for miles without meeting a single person, and seeing no trace of man except some deserted plantations. While there he investigated the geology, botany, and natural history of the place, and succeeded in scaling the lofty mountain. He also, in conjunction with an agent of the company, succeeded in purchasing from the few Natives in possession, their rights in the soil.

In February, 1841, Mr. Carrington, the company's Surveyor, having previously explored the coast for a site for the new settlement, and fixed on the Taranaki district, in January of the same year arrived, accompanied by his staff, and the survey of the district was commenced. On the 31st March of that year, the barque *William Bryon* arrived with the first batch of immigrants. This vessel was followed by the *Amelia Thompson*, which arrived on the 3rd September, and by her tender, a small vessel destined for coasting, called the *Regina*, which was unfortunately wrecked on the Taranaki beach shortly after her arrival. The *Oriental* arrived on the 7th November, 1841, and the *Timandara* on 2nd February, 1842, and these were followed at intervals by the *Blenheim* and



*Essex.* The immigrants were from the English western counties — Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, and Hants; they numbered nearly 2,000, and were selected so carefully with regard to character, that for many years crime was almost unknown in the Province. The majority were agricultural labourers and miners, but there were some tradesmen and professional men. The first work performed was the erection of huts to live in; these were chiefly constructed of the broad rush of the country, after the fashion of the Natives, and were thatched with sedge. Every able-bodied man was engaged in making roads, constructing bridges, and cutting lines through the fern and forest lands.

When the immigrants landed, the few Natives who greeted them were miserable and dejected. Many of them at times were absolutely naked. After a while, gaining confidence, they came out of their hiding-places in the forest, and from distant places on the coast, in order to see the white man, to marvel at his works, to trade with him in fish, firewood, and potatoes, and to share in the blankets and other things which had been promised in payment for the land. The first unpleasantness between the races arose through a quantity of goods which had been promised not being forthcoming. To rectify this, the Chief Surveyor, Mr. Carrington, wrote to Colonel Wakefield, and that gentleman despatched the schooner *Jewess*, freighted with the promised articles. The vessel was unfortunately wrecked in the Strait, and the Natives never received the goods, but they accepted the intention for the deed.

After this affair had been thus amicably settled, the great chief of the Waikato tribe, who had conquered the tribes of Taranaki, sent a subordinate chief named Te Kaka (*Anglicè* the Parrot) with 200 men to claim the land by right of conquest. This claim was satisfied by the English Governor, Hobson, paying the chief £150 in money, two horses, two saddles, two bridles, and 100 red blankets. A part of the bargain made with the Natives was, that one-tenth of the purchased land should be returned to them when it was surveyed; and in order to expedite their civilization, it was judged prudent to give them their reserves in the midst of the lands selected by the Europeans.

As soon as the surveys were completed, the immigrants began to take up their allotments, to build and to cultivate. A village was soon formed on a beautiful and level tract of land, about six miles from the township of New Plymouth. Scarcely had

this been done, when a number of slaves, the original owners of the district, were set at liberty through the entreaties of the Rev. John Whitely, a Wesleyan missionary, who has since fallen by the hands of those to whose welfare he devoted his life. These manumitted slaves, who, of course, had not received any part of the payment for the land, became insolent and tyrannical, and demanded that the land should be given up to them. At length, a Commissioner, Mr. Spain, was sent by the Home Government to investigate their claims. He decided against them, and made an award in favour of the New Zealand Company; but, discontent still prevailing—being, if anything, rather increased by this decision—Governor Fitzroy reversed the award of the Imperial Commissioner, declared all the Europeans trespassers for the time being, and gave back all the country lands to the Natives; with the understanding, however, that on the extinction of the Native title, by purchase or otherwise, the dispossessed settlers should re-enter on their original selections. This was a great blow to the settlement; many settlers left, and further to reduce it, the Governor induced many of the Cornish miners to go to the Government settlement at Auckland, to work a newly discovered mine yielding copper and manganese. Some of the best settlers were compelled to go into the heavily-timbered lands and hew out for themselves farms with the axe, while thousands of acres of fine open land were left a barren and totally unproductive waste. The land was given back to the Natives in 1844, and during the succeeding ten years a few small blocks were repurchased at great expense and in the face of much opposition. Then a land league was formed, the outcome of which was the great war of 1860.

There were, however, a few things that tended to cheer the pioneers of the settlement in the midst of their severe struggles. The country was very healthy—the year would pass without a single death occurring in the community. The earth also yielded abundantly—wheat just chipped in with a mattock returned rich harvests of golden grain. Mills were erected, and quantities of fine flour exported. Grass also flourished; Dutch white clover sprang up in all directions; and butter soon became an article of export. Poultry became plentiful, and the bee produced great quantities of honey. The settler found comfort, and if his farm brought little cash to his pocket, he was amply supplied by it with all the necessities of life, and was cheered by seeing the daisy, primrose, and other British

flowers, and all the fruits of his native land, flourish in luxuriance round his humble cottage.

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE PROVINCE.

Situate on the west coast of the North Island, between the 38th and 40th parallels of south latitude, with a population of about 5,400, the Province of Taranaki contains, in proportion to its area, a greater extent of land suitable for cultivation than any other Province in the Colony; while its bracing yet genial atmosphere, and the noted salubrity of its climate, evidenced by the troops of rosy children, point it out as one of the most eligible settlements the intending emigrant could select for his future home.

Geologically, Taranaki is a volcanic country. The underlying formation is a bluish marl of the older tertiary series; but, except for about twenty miles of the northern part of the Province, it is overlaid by a great mass of trachytic rock. This is covered with a deposit of yellow earth, consisting of ferruginous volcanic tufa of varying depth, but sometimes extending to 90 feet. In this tufa occurs the titanite iron sand, which is likely very speedily to be utilized, and to become a considerable source of wealth to the Province. In addition to the peak of Taranaki, or Mount Egmont, which rises to the height of 8,270 feet, there are two considerable mountain ranges of a picturesque character, also the cone-like Sugar Loaf Peak and Islands, and many ridges and small detached hills, which are composed of trachytic rock or trachytic breccia. Where the marl rises to the surface, the land is adapted to the production of European fruits. The vine and the apple-tree thrive well upon it. On the volcanic soils, grapes, root crops, wheat to some extent, and the peach-tree flourish.

The area of the Province is 2,137,000 acres, and of this at least two-thirds, or about 1,500,000 acres, is good agricultural land, suitable for settlement. There are only 175,000 acres in the hands of settlers. The balance is still in the hands of the General Government and the Natives; the portion at the disposal of the Provincial authorities being insignificant in quantity. The most noticeable features of the country are these: Taking the coast line, it will be found that the central portion of the Province, from New Plymouth to the Kaipokanui stream, is circular in form; so much so, that if one leg of a gigantic pair of compasses were placed on Mount Egmont, and a semicircle were described with a radius of fifteen miles, it would aptly delineate the

coast for a distance of forty-five miles. For the greater part of this distance the land—which on the coast line is low and rocky to within a few miles of Cape Egmont, while from that point it rises, and presents, as an ocean front, an unbroken line of cliffs averaging 100 feet in height—rises gradually inland in the direction of the mountain, and is divided at intervals by valleys, most of them containing rivers or streams, running more or less in a direct line from the mountain to the coast. Between these valleys are plateaux, generally very level, and the soil consists of a rich, black, vegetable mould, from nine to eighteen inches in thickness, overlying the volcanic tufa.

The following table will be of use in showing the mode in which the land of the Province now occupied or owned by settlers has been acquired; and as the land held by Europeans under Native owners is also given, it shows an acreage rather higher than that before stated:—

#### *Area of Settled Districts of Taranaki.*

	Acres.
The old settlement, including Taranamaka, Bell Block, and Omata ... ..	38,197
Subsequent acquisitions by purchase (Hua and Waiwakaiho, and Tarururangi) ... ..	29,093
Military settlements ... ..	97,800
Confiscated land sold by General Government ... ..	10,000
Native lands held under Crown grant, which have been purchased by or leased to Europeans in the East and West Waitara blocks ... ..	10,090
Settled area ... ..	185,090

Of this, only 35,744 acres were in crop, or broken up ready for cropping, in February, 1873. This acreage was in 492 holdings, and included land laid down in permanent artificial grass.

From New Plymouth, the coast trends in a north-easterly direction to the Waitara River for a distance of about eleven miles. The land here is less divided by gullies, and the soil is of the richest description—much of the same character as that between New Plymouth and Kaipokonui. North of the Waitara, the coast line runs for ten miles in an easterly direction to the Urenui River, and thence again in a north-easterly direction for about twenty-five miles to the river Mokau, the northern boundary of the Province. From the Waitara northwards, the soil is stiffer, and well adapted to grain crops; while between the Oneiro and Mimi





A CREEK, IN NEW ZEALAND

Rivers, and especially in the neighbourhood of the Urenui, the soil consists, to a great extent of a heavy clay admirably suited for brick making. From the Mimi northward, the soil is still a clayey loam, and at and near Mokau the finest brick clay in the Province is to be found in inexhaustible quantities, of a quality suitable for the manufacture of fine-bricks and pottery. Before the war of 1860, several English brickmakers lived at Mokau, and shipped large quantities of bricks, but on the outbreak of hostilities they were forced to leave, and from that time no English vessel of any description has entered the river. In the vicinity of the Urenui River, the finest apples, peaches, and grapes in the Province are produced, all of them growing luxuriantly, even in a wild and uncultivated state. The banks of the river in many places are festooned with vines, which, in the season, are laden with fruit.

From the Kaipokonui River southward, the coast line, forming a slight inward curve, trends in a south-easterly direction for some thirty miles to the mouth of the river Patea, which is the southernmost boundary of the Province on the coast line, though not bounding it at any other point except at its mouth, the river running its whole length through Taranaki. This part of the Province, from the sea for several miles inland, is, as a rule, beautifully level, and mostly clothed with grass or clover. The land adjacent to the coast is generally open and covered with fern, *phormium* grass, or clover, for a distance varying from one to fifteen miles inland, while the interior is densely wooded.

Between the Kaipokonui and the southern boundary of Taranaki, the soil is generally a clayey loam, much stiffer than the soil north of the Kaipokonui, and very productive.

Taranaki is divided politically into three electoral districts, viz.:—The town of New Plymouth, Grey and Bell, and Egmont, each returning a member to the House of Representatives. For Provincial electoral purposes it is, however, divided into four districts, returning fifteen members to the Council, viz.:—New Plymouth, 4 members; Grey and Bell, 6; Omata, 3; and Patea, 2: Omata and Patea being subdivisions of the Egmont District. The settled portion of the Province is, for road-rating purposes, divided into twenty-six districts, each under the management of three Commissioners elected annually by the ratepayers, who, at the same meeting, vote the rate for the district for the ensuing year; the Commissioners superintending the expenditure of the money raised by the rate.

There is a general similarity in the ruling industries of the several districts. The settlers in all are engaged in agricultural and pastoral pursuits; in some, the agricultural predominates and in others the pastoral, though in all they are more or less combined. The Patea district, extending from the Patea to the Waingongoro River, is mainly a pastoral district, for which it is admirably fitted, being for the whole distance of some twenty-four miles perfectly level, except in the river courses, and covered with grass and clover. From the Waingongoro to the Stony River, about fifty-four miles, the land is still in Native hands, with the exception of the small reserve for a town at Opunake, and some 800 acres in private hands at the same place. The country throughout the whole of this distance is interspersed with enormous fields of *Phormium tenax*, the New Zealand flax. Extensive mills were established at Opunake about four years ago, and the work of manufacturing the fibre was continued until the autumn of 1873, when the continued fall in the market value of the article caused the stoppage of the mills. It is to be hoped that ere long a more economical mode of manufacture may be discovered, or that the fibre may command a steadier market, and consequently a steadier price, as, in either case, these vast fields would speedily be utilized, and would afford remunerative employment for thousands. The Natives throughout the district are quite willing, and even anxious, to lease the right of cutting the leaf from off their lands, and it is only the instability of the market, resulting already, in this Province alone, in a loss of several thousand pounds to the enterprising promoters of the industry, which has caused the present, and it is to be hoped, but temporary, collapse.

From Stony River to the Tapuae River, a distance of ten miles, agriculture is the ruling industry, as it is also of that next in order, viz.:—from the Tapuae River to the Paritutu line, the northern boundary of the Egmont electoral district, a distance of about five miles, mostly occupied by Europeans. With the Omata block, about a mile and a-half beyond the Tapuae, commences the old settlement (as distinguished from the military settlements and the confiscated land), viz., the Provincial estate previous to 1863, which, however, also included the detached Tataraimaka block of 4,000 acres.

The Grey and Bell Electoral district, from the Paritutu line to the Mokau River, the northern boundary of the Province, has a coast line of about forty-five miles. Of this, at different intervals, and on an average for two-thirds of the distance, Native lands



abut on the coast. The remainder of the coast line bounds land owned by the settlers. Agriculture is the principal industry of this portion of the settlement. The general features of the district have been already described. The flax industry has received a check in the remainder of the Egmont district and in the Grey and Bell, as well as at Opunake; and of nine factories for the manufacture of the fibre, which were at one time at work in the Province, not one is at present in operation.

Seven years ago there was only one town in Taranaki, viz., New Plymouth—the spot on which the pilgrim fathers of the settlement landed in 1841, and which gave its name to the Province; for, until 1858, it was known as the Province of New Plymouth, an Ordinance passed by the Legislative Council in 1858, altering the title to “Taranaki.” There were besides two villages, viz., the Hua and Omata.

New Plymouth contains about nineteen hundred inhabitants, and is the seat of the Provincial Government. The aspect of the town from the sea is charming, with the ground gradually sloping upwards from the beach, and a dark green belt of bush still rising in the middle distance, until the landscape culminates in the glorious background of the majestic snow-clad cone of Mount Egmont. The central point of the foreground is Marsland Hill, crowned with the immigration barracks, most commodious, but certainly not prepossessing in appearance. In front and to the right and left of this point, churches, chapels, and houses are to be seen peeping from amidst the trees, which have been plentifully planted by the settlers. During the war, for a while, the whole of the inhabitants of the Province, together with the Imperial troops stationed in Taranaki, were crowded into a portion of the town surrounded with trenches. New Plymouth then for the first time became unhealthy, consequent on some five thousand people being crowded into a space barely sufficient for a quarter of that number. It is, however, a very healthy place, and the dip of the land towards the sea supplies it with efficient natural drainage. At the census of 1871, the number of houses was returned as 595, of which 428 were inhabited, 166 uninhabited, and one building. Since then, however, great progress has been made. Very few houses are now uninhabited (in fact it is difficult to rent a house), and many additional ones have been built, including several shops and stores of a superior description, and the really handsome building belonging to the Bank of New Zealand, built during 1873.

Lying on the beach at New Plymouth, and along the coast of the whole of the Province, but in greater quantity in the vicinity of the town, is to be seen in great quantities—constituting, in fact, the principal part of its material—the far-famed, but until lately unused, Taranaki iron sand. This hitherto undeveloped resource is about to be utilized. Two valuable seams of clay have lately been discovered, and are now being worked in the immediate vicinity of the town, from which very good bricks are being made, the immediate result being that the price has been reduced from £7. 10s. to £5 per thousand. The town also contains one iron foundry, one boot-building establishment, two breweries, one soap and candle manufactory, and two printing establishments, viz., those of the *Taranaki News* and the *Taranaki Herald*. In the suburbs, are a tannery, and a wool-scouring establishment. The town is under the management of a Town Board, the members of which are elected by the rate-payers.

Two towns have been established since the war, viz., Raleigh, more generally known as Waitara, at the mouth of the river of that name, and Carlyle, on the Patea River; the former ten, and the latter ninety-five miles from New Plymouth.

From its situation at the mouth of a tidal river easily accessible to vessels of from 100 to 200 tons burden, Raleigh will ere long be a town of some little consequence, more especially when the railway runs through it, and thus brings to it the stock and produce of the southern part of the Province for shipment.

Carlyle now numbers more than 150 inhabitants. The Patea River is accessible to vessels of small tonnage.

The land is generally suitable for agricultural purposes, grasses well, and when grassed carries from six to eight sheep per acre. With the exception of a strip of open land, varying in breadth from one to seven miles, the whole face of the country is covered with heavy bush, in which there is much valuable timber. The land is sold by auction at an upset price of 10s. per acre for bush, and £2 per acre for open ground.

There is at present very little land in the hands of the Provincial authorities and open for sale. Under the New Zealand Settlements Acts, all the confiscated lands were vested in the General Government for purposes specified in those Acts, and all the sales lately made have been sales of confiscated land. Lands which have been acquired from the Natives by purchase, or

over which the Native title has become extinguished other than by confiscation, are known as waste lands of the Crown, and the gross revenue arising from the sale of such lands, after deducting the salary of the Receiver of Land Revenue, is handed over to the Province and treated as Provincial revenue. Such being the case, we may cite as land which will ere long be available for Provincial purposes, first, the valuable block known as the Puketapu, and containing about 30,000 acres, the purchase of which from its Native owners has lately been completed by Mr. Parris, the Native Commissioner of Taranaki. The district commences about twelve miles from New Plymouth, and is situate between the Mongonui and Waiongona Rivers. It is generally level and covered with valuable timber, the bush having the advantage of being more open and less encumbered with underscrub than is generally the case with the forest land of New Zealand.

A large tract of land has been acquired by purchase from the Natives by Mr. Parris, on behalf of the Government, in the Ngatimaru district, commencing some twenty miles from New Plymouth, and situate on the north bank of the River Waitara. A great part of this district is suitable for agricultural purposes; the remoter portion of it is, however, principally valuable at present for the totara growing on it. There is a great demand for this timber in connection with the railway works now in progress. Already, before the land is open for sale, several applications have been received from parties desirous of forming companies for utilizing the totara by felling and floating it down the Waitara to Ruloigh, where they propose to erect steam saw-mills.

Charcoal burning is an occupation which might be pursued with advantage in clearing the bush. Most of the New Zealand trees make excellent charcoal, and the iron-sand smelting companies will require large quantities of it, besides what would be purchased by private families.

The soil of Taranaki is, as a rule, admirably adapted for root crops. The sugar beet might be cultivated with profit if a sugar factory were established.

Of the 90,000 acres held by residents, about 30,000 acres are fenced, and about 35,000 under cultivation, including land laid down in permanent grasses. Small holdings of about 50 acres are to be purchased at a comparatively cheap rate, viz., at from 10s. to £1 per acre, unimproved. Very little improved land is open for sale.

The manufacture of flax fibre has ceased

*pro tem.* and that of iron from the sand has not yet been practically commenced. Through want of method, or from apathy or some other cause, timber is imported from other Provinces and the local sawyers undersold. Perhaps the cause may be the want of facilities for shipping off timber. The average price of red pine is about 16s. per 100 feet.

#### INDUSTRIES: PRESENT AND POSSIBLE.

There are numerous branches of industry which might be pursued with profit in Taranaki. Some might be entered upon without capital, some with very little, while others are such as could only be conducted either by persons of large capital, or by an association of small capitalists as a company.

Of those which require little or no capital there are:—

1. *The Manufacture of Charcoal*, which would find a ready sale, and would prove a remunerative mode of clearing a bush farm, most of the New Zealand trees being convertible into good charcoal.

2. *Tobacco Growing and Curing*.—Tobacco grows luxuriantly on the cleared bush land; but want of the special knowledge required for properly curing the leaf, prevents its being cultivated except by the Maoris, who are not particular as to the flavour of the "weed."

3. *Pickles and Fruit Preserving*.—Although fruits and vegetables of every description grown in the temperate zones flourish here, yet, strange to say, all the pickles and jams consumed are imported. A more favourable locality than Taranaki for the growth of all the various vegetables used in the manufacture of pickles it would be difficult to find; and the establishment of a factory, for which very little capital would be required, would be of great service in giving marketable value to the pickle vegetables which could be raised by the settlers in their gardens. The manufacture of jams could be combined with the pickle factory.

4. *Cultivation of the Vine*.—The plantation of vineyards might be entered upon with every chance of success, so far as soil and climate are concerned. In the vicinity of Nantes, in Brittany, and other places in which the manufacture of wine is a leading industry, the mean temperature is considerably lower than in Taranaki, and the soil not better adapted to the vine. Excess of moisture is certainly unfavourable to the cultivation of grapes for vineyard purposes, but when the dense inland bush is to some extent cleared, and the rainfall thereby



diminished, the climate will become more and more favourable to the vine. Meanwhile, on many of the hill slopes with any aspect between north-east and north-west, the occupation of vigneron might be followed with profit by adopting the system of Dr. Jules Guyot, the efficacy of which against rains and cold is generally recognized in France.

5. *Hop Growing*.—There are two patches of hops cultivated in Taranaki, containing each about two acres, one in its fourth and the other in its third year of plantation. These thrive well and yield good returns. The soil and climate seem to suit the hop admirably, and growing them on a large scale would prove a lucrative speculation.

Among the industries which would require capital to develop them are:—

1. *Phormium Fibre Rope Factory*.—The immense quantity of *Phormium* in the Province, and the ease with which it can be got at, would render a rope-walk a profitable speculation. Very little capital would be required for the undertaking.

2. *Phormium Fibre Sackcloth and Bagging Factory*.—The establishment of a factory for fibre spinning and conversion of the material into sackcloth and bagging would demand some capital, but would amply repay any company that entered upon the speculation. The extensive mills belonging to the Opunake Flax Company could be obtained at a reasonable rate, and the factory might be built in their vicinity.

3. *Beetroot Sugar Factory*.—In many parts of the Province, beets rich in saccharine juices might be grown. It must not be forgotten that soils most favourable to the development of the root are often not equally adapted to the development of the juices. The most favourable soil for the development of saccharine richness in the beetroot are chalky loams or clays. Peaty loams, so fertile for grain crops, are little favourable to beet, which becomes poor in sugar, and, above all, when grown in such soil, contains abundantly salts of soda and magnesia, which render the juice uncrystallizable. The proposed establishment of sugar refineries in the Colony affords additional reason for turning to account the adaptability of the soil of Taranaki for the cultivation of sugar beet.

4. *A Woollen Factory* might be established with every prospect of success.

5. *Meat Preserving*, by salt or otherwise, would answer.

6. *Fish Curing* might be profitably carried on, as we have large quantities of fish off our shores: kahawai, schnapper,

hapuka, rock cod, &c., besides shoals of herrings.

7. *Iron-sand Smelting*.—Although one large furnace for the melting of iron-sand is in course of erection, and it is expected that another will be commenced before the end of the year, there is yet an opening for any number of works of the same description, the supply of ore on the beach being practically inexhaustible.

A very large area of the Province of Taranaki is forest land, in which timber and firewood are very abundant. The trees are, with two exceptions, evergreen. Most of them bear blossoms containing nectar, on which the introduced honey bees and many of the Native birds feed. The blossoms are generally not remarkable for beauty, but they are interesting, and many of them slightly odorous. The best timber from general purposes is that called by the colonists red pine. It is a red, close-grained, resinous, somewhat brittle, but durable wood, and is the product of a very handsome tree allied to the cypresses. The branches droop and the leaves are small and imbricated, so that the terminal shoots resemble some of the Cape heaths, or the small sedum, commonly called stone-crop. The red pine (Native name, rimu) makes excellent furniture, taking a high polish, and frequently exhibiting a pretty grain. It is extensively used for building purposes. There is another excellent wood called totara. The tree producing it is allied to the yew. This timber is not so plentiful in the Province as the red pine. The timber of the kahikatea, or white pine, is useful for furniture and in-door building purposes, but is useless for exterior work or out-of-door purposes, as it decays rapidly when exposed. A tree called puriri, producing teak or ironwood, is found near to the sea and a few miles inland. The timber is very durable, and is used for bridges, piles, wheels, and carts. The rata, a very curious tree of the myrtle family, which is at first a parasite, but afterwards embraces and strangles the tree which supported it in its youth, yields a dark red, heavy timber, useful for wheels, carts, and waggons, and for the beams of ships. It burns freely, and is the best of firewood. It makes very good charcoal, as do also the towai, tawa, puriri, rimu, and several other denizens of the Zealand forest. The pukatea is a handsome tree, the heart timber of which is used for fencing; sawn, it is also used for roofing-boards. The kohakohe yields a good fencing timber, and also makes very shingles. Besides these, there are many trees producing wood of a softer and less durable

character, many of which are used for rough temporary fences and for fuel.

For ornamental purposes, the bush produces many shrubs, fern trees, and small ferns; but very few of them can be cultivated with facility, and the settlers prefer importing hardy trees.

Abundance of exceedingly durable stone, rather hard to work, is found upon the sea beach, in small volcanic hills, in the beds of streams, and in the mountains. Sandstone of a coarse and soft character exists, but not to a great extent. Coal exists on the northern boundary line of the Province, and possibly also on the south-eastern line. The coal is that known as hydrous brown coal: it is hard and glossy, and frequently contains a quantity of fossil resin, which assists its combustion very considerably. Dr. Hector, the New Zealand Government Geologist, says, in his report on the coal-deposits of New Zealand, that from the existence of seams of this coal on the Mokau River, north of Taranaki, and on most of the tributaries of the Wanganui River, it is probable that an extensive brown coal-field exists in this portion of the Island. Traces of this coal have also been discovered at Tongaporutu, a small river south of Mokau. Very pure crystals of sulphur have been obtained from Kaitake, a picturesque volcanic dyke, of considerable elevation, about twelve miles from New Plymouth. Traces of petroleum are very apparent at the Sugar Loaves, and traces of copper ore and graphite are sometimes met with. A phosphate of alumina, called Taranakite, is found at the Sugar Loaves, cementing the blocks of trachytic breccia of which the Islands are composed. But the most important mineral known to exist in Taranaki is titaniferous iron-sand. This sand exists in the volcanic tufa which surrounds Mount Egmont, and is found nearly pure in the bed of every trickling rill. On the sea beach for many miles it is in inexhaustible quantities. It is of a very dark blue colour, sparkles in the sun-light, and is magnetic. The beach sand has yielded 61 per cent. of iron of the finest quality. Until lately great difficulties were experienced in reducing it, but these, it is believed, have been overcome by using cakes of powdered charcoal mixed with clay. Works for reducing the sand by this method, and upon a considerable scale, are in course of construction. It has been stated that gold exists towards the northern and eastern boundaries of the Province, in the vicinity of Tuhua.

There are two flour-mills, one worked by steam, one by water.

## LABOUR MARKET, AND COST OF LIVING.

*Farm Labourers.*—There is a scarcity of these in the Province, though not as yet very great.

*Farm Female Servants* are in demand, especially good dairy hands.

*Mechanics.*—In most branches there is a sufficiency, but only a bare sufficiency, and increase of population would create a demand, more especially if works are in progress.

*Labourers.*—For these there is a steadily increasing demand, at 6s. to 7s. per day; and if works are to be carried on at a reasonable rate, the number of labourers must be largely increased.

*Domestic Servants.*—There is a steady demand for female domestic servants in the Province. If women of a suitable class are introduced, the demand will tend to increase instead of diminish, as industrious and respectable girls who, as domestic servants, have undergone a sort of preparation for household duties, are much sought after for wives by our out-settlers, and very soon become employers instead of employed.

*Married Couples.*—An occasional demand to occupy detached farms; generally pasturage for a certain number of cattle given, an acre or two for garden, house, and about £1 to 25s. per week.

*Single Men* 6s. to 7s. per diem. Generally 6s. per diem to men of the old settler stamp, who can turn their hand to anything in the shape of farm work. At per week, from £1 to 25s., with keep.

*Single Women.*—The principal demand would be for dairy hands, and these might reckon on getting from £25 to £30 per annum and keep.

*Mechanics.*—Current rates are—Blacksmiths, 9s. to 10s. per diem; bricklayers, 7s. to 9s.; carpenters, 7s. to 9s.; coopers, about 10s. (little demand); painters, 7s. to 9s.; shoemakers, 8s. to 10s.; tailors, 8s. to 10s.

*Female Cooks*, about £30 to £35 per annum. Little or no demand.

*Female Domestic Servants*, £20 to £30 per annum. Steady demand.

Of all the Provinces, Taranaki offers the greatest advantages to the petty capitalist or small farmer immigrant. Land inferior in quality to none in the Colony, and superior to most, is obtainable at a reasonable rate and within reasonable distance of a town, whether New Plymouth, Raleigh, or Carlyle. True, most of it is covered with forest, but this is rather an advantage than a drawback to the industrious small farmer settling down on his 50-acre section with



the determination to make a home in the bush. The land when cleared and burned is at once ready for cropping, being in this respect very different to the open fern lands, which require several workings before they are fit to receive a crop, and in fact yield little or nothing until plentifully manured. Again, the settler in clearing his farm, so soon as he has a pair of bullocks and cart, and a patch of grass land for the former to graze on, can convert his bush into cash by carting firewood or charcoal to town. It is even not necessary that he should himself have land grassed for the bullocks in commencing, if, as is generally the case, he can make terms with a neighbour for right of paddocking his cattle. He can thus immediately turn his timber to account in clearing his location. He is also provided with firing at the cost of a little labour only. True, agricultural produce does not command so high a price as in localities possessing the benefit of a harbour; but the settler and his family would enjoy plenty. His little farm would in a short time be laid down in grass, with a few acres in root crops and oats for green food, to supplement his pasture in rearing cattle and sheep, and a few acres in grain, &c., for home consumption. A few pigs and any number of fowls could be kept at little expense, for pigs make flesh rapidly here, and every description of poultry thrives wonderfully, picking up most of the feed in the bush.

Mechanics will find work at rates much higher than those current in the United Kingdom, while the necessaries of life are, with the exception of clothing, generally much lower in price. It must, too, be remembered that if current wages of mechanics are lower here than in some of the other Provinces, house rent and prices of commodities are lower, the former especially, than anywhere else in New Zealand, which is more than an equivalent for the difference of wages. Most of the mechanics, as also the labourers, invest their savings in the purchase of land and stock, thus becoming in a few years landed proprietors and owners of flocks and herds.

Labourers of any class will at least, even in the worst of times, never feel the pressure of want. Wages have never been much below 5s. per diem for able-bodied men, and now it does not seem probable that they will go below from 7s. to 6s. per diem for some years to come.

Working oxen, per yoke, from £20 to £30.

Working horses, each, from £20 to £25.  
Cows, about £5 each.

Sheep, from 12s. to 17s. 6d. each.

#### *Retail Prices.*

Bread, per 4lb. loaf, 9d.  
Beef, per lb., 2d. to 5d.  
Mutton, per lb., 2d. to 5d.  
Pork, per lb., 4d. to 6d.  
Bacon, per lb., 9d. to 11d.  
Butter, per lb., according to season, to 1s. 4d.  
Cheese (English), per lb., 1s. 6d.  
Cheese (Colonial), per lb., 10d. to 1s.  
Tea, per lb., 2s. 6d. to 4s.  
Coffee, per lb., 1s. 4d. to 2s.  
Sugar (brown), per lb., 5d. to 7d.  
Sugar (loaf), per lb., 10d. to 1s.  
Milk, per quart, 3d. to 4d.  
Potatoes, per ton, £4 to £5.  
Firewood, per ton, 7s. to 10s.  
Coal, per ton, £3.  
Soap, per lb., 4d. to 6d.  
Beer, per quart, 1s.  
Tobacco, per lb. 4s. 6d., to 6s.  
Fowls, per pair, 2s. to 3s.  
Turkeys, each, 2s. 6d. to 5s.  
Ducks, per pair, 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d.  
Geese, each, 5s. to 6s.  
Clothing, 50 per cent. advance on English prices.

#### RELIGIOUS BODIES AND PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATION.

The following are the numbers of the several religious denominations in the Province, approximated from the latest returns, viz:—

	About
Episcopalian Church ...	2,700
Presbyterians ...	350
Roman Catholics ...	500
Wesleyans ...	650
Independents ...	50
Baptists ...	50
Primitive Methodists ...	400
Other denominations and not described ...	400
	<hr/> 5,000

The above numbers include the whole estimated population, infants and children of tender years being returned as belonging to the religion in which it is the intention of their parents to bring them up.

There is accommodation for public worship for about 3,000 people out of a total population of about 5,000. There is, however, a want of clergy to administer at the different churches and chapels. The following are the numbers of the clergy of the various sects and denominations, viz:—  
Episcopalian Church, 2; Presbyterian, 1;

Roman Catholic, 1; Wesleyans, 2; Independents, 0; Baptists, 0; Primitive Methodists, 1; other denominations, 0; total, 7.

Besides these the Wesleyans and Primitive Methodists are assisted by local preachers.

The Church of England is under the Auckland Synod; the Presbyterian under the Auckland Presbytery.

The following is an abstract of the Ordinance regulating the educational system of the Province. The Central Board of Education, from which emanate all general regulations for the management of schools established or carried on under the Ordinance, consists of six members, nominated by the Superintendent, with the approval of the Provincial Council, the Superintendent for the time being acting *ex officio* as chairman. No member holds office for more than four years from the date of his appointment, but any member is eligible for re-appointment.

Whenever the Board considers it advisable that any locality in the Province should be constituted a separate educational district, it proceeds to call a public meeting of all male persons, being householders in the district, above the age of twenty-one; and the Act provides that the Chairman must attend the meeting and give information regarding the provisions of the Ordinance and the proceedings proper to be taken under it. Should a majority of the voters at the meeting decide on rating themselves for educational purposes, in a rate not exceeding £1 per annum on each householder, and further declare their willingness that the district be formed into an educational district under the Ordinance, it is so proclaimed by the Superintendent in the *Provincial Gazette*.

The householders of the district next proceed to elect a Local Committee of three or six members, of whom a majority must be parents of families. One member of every Local Committee of three, and two of every Local Committee of six, retire annually. At its first meeting each Local Committee proceeds to elect a chairman, who has both an original and a casting vote. The duties of the Local Committees consist of keeping the accounts of moneys received and expended in their respective districts, certified accounts of which have to be sent to the Board of Education annually; of establishing schools, fixing the salary of the teacher in each district, and regulating the amount of school fees; and generally of managing the educational matters of their districts. The Committee

also has the control of the district school-room, and determines the purposes for which it may be used at any time except in school hours, subject to any regulations made on that behalf by the Board.

No teacher can be appointed until he has produced to the Board a certificate of qualification from Her Majesty's Committee of Privy Council on Education, or from the Inspector of Schools, or from some other person appointed by the Board in that behalf.

Power is given to the Board to assist schools not situate in educational districts, and also denominational schools.

The School Committee of any district may excuse payment of school fees by parents, and admit children to free education in any school appointed under the Ordinance, on proof that the applicant is, from extreme poverty, unable to pay. Payment of rates can also, under certain circumstances, be dispensed with; but there is not, in fact, a rated educational district in the Province, and the rating clauses of the Acts are practically null and void.

The fees payable are 10s. per quarter for each child under ten years of age, and 15s. per quarter for each child over that age.

As a rule, poverty and want are all but unknown in Taranaki. Every one able and willing to work can find employment, and the painful spectacles of distress and misery which strike the eye at every turn in old communities, are here unseen and unheard of. There are, however, occasionally cases in which present assistance is required, either from sickness, accidents to body or property, and sometimes even from causes for which the sufferer is alone to blame, such as over-indulgence in intoxicating liquors, &c. To meet such cases, about £250 is voted annually by the Provincial Council, and its distribution committed to an unpaid Board named by the Superintendent, with the consent of the Council. This Board investigates all cases brought to its notice, and grants orders for relief, either in money or provisions, or both.

For cases of sickness and casualties there is the Provincial hospital, a commodious range of buildings most healthily situated on the slope of a hill to the south of the town. Applicants for admission either proceed to the hospital before eleven o'clock in the forenoon to be examined by the medical officer in charge, Dr. Rawson, or, if unable to do so, send and inform the doctor of their state, and their desire to be admitted. The doctor, after inspection, if he considers any case one requiring hospital



treatment, immediately admits the patient. Accidents are taken directly to the hospital and admitted into the casualty ward at any hour. No order or recommendation is required in any case, and the hospital is free to all persons unable to pay; for instance, labourers and others who, by reason of their state, are debarred from working for their living. Persons able to pay are charged 2s. per diem. A separate ward for Maoris is attached to the building, and also a lunatic asylum. Out-patients are attended to before 11 a.m. each day, and some are visited at their own houses.

The Province makes a grant of £400 per annum in aid of the hospital funds, and also pays the cost of repairs and additions to the building. This sum is however often found insufficient, and the deficit is made up by means of a reading or musical entertainment, the proceeds of which are given to the hospital, or by voluntary contributions.

The houses here suitable for mechanics, labourers, or persons of small means, are generally built with a lean-to, and with four rooms, viz., two in the main building and two in the lean-to. A larger house would be, say four in the main building and two in the lean-to. A four-roomed house, as above, could be rented at from 3s. 6d. to 5s. per week, according to size and situation; a six-roomed house at from 5s. 6d. to 8s. 6d. per week. Houses of more pretensions as to appearance, and larger as to number of rooms, can be rented at £20 and upwards. To each house or cottage there is attached, as a rule, at least a quarter-acre of garden.

The average cost of erecting cottages is about the same in town and country, namely—For a four-roomed house, chimney, &c., complete, from £100 to £120; a six-roomed house, chimney, &c., £160.

#### HINTS TO EMIGRANTS.

Most especially are emigrants warned against encumbering themselves with a large outfit, or with any more articles of any sort than they would require during the voyage and for the first few months, or say a year, after their arrival. True, apparel is cheaper in England than here, but it must not be forgotten that in ordinary boxes the moth and damp make sad havoc, and the owner, on arrival at the port, will probably find most of his or her clothes spoilt. Apparel can only safely be brought out in soldered tin cases: therefore, the emigrant should only bring out little, if any, more than can conveniently be taken out and aired occasionally during the voyage.

Though he should encumber himself with as few general articles as possible, yet he should be furnished with some means of allaying the tedium of a long voyage; some interesting books, school-books also, with which to teach his children, if competent to do so, if not let him still bring the books. The clergyman of his parish or some other person would tell him the most appropriate educational works. There will be sure to be some person willing and able to pass his time in a useful manner by imparting a few hours' instruction a day to any children that may be on board. The mother will find plenty to do in making and mending for the children, and keeping them clean—a matter of the first importance on board ship. The father, if not teaching, should turn his hand to some occupation—say net-making, assisting the sailmaker, anything but idleness.

With regard to the route, by all means try to avoid transshipment: take a vessel bound direct to the port of disembarkation, your destination. If that cannot be done conveniently—if, for instance, you would have to wait too long for a ship for New Plymouth direct—if possible take a ship bound to Nelson, the most convenient port for transshipment to New Plymouth.

On arrival at New Plymouth, the immigrant will probably first proceed to the immigration dépôt. He should make as short a stay there as possible: he should lose no time before looking about him for something to do, and should accept anything in the shape of work rather than remain idle. Working hours are by no means long—from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m., with an hour allowed for dinner; and even while working at whatever he has set his hand to, he can still be looking about him, and making inquiries for something better if not perfectly satisfied with his then occupation. He should not forget that a handy man in the colonies should be able to turn his hand to almost anything, and the more versatile his means of making himself useful, the more steady and the higher wages he will command.

The immigrant is strongly recommended, when he leaves the dépôt with his family, not to go into lodgings, but to take a small cottage at once. A very little furniture goes a very long way at first in the colonies, and he will be astonished at the variety of uses to which packing-cases and boxes can be turned. A few stretchers, in lieu of beds, can be obtained cheap, and a form or two may replace chairs for a short time, until he has begun to count his savings.

The emigrant has been recommended not





to burden himself with much outfit, but let him bring out all the money available instead. This had better be paid into some Bank carrying on business in New Zealand, and the depositor furnished with a draft or letter of credit for the amount on the branch bank at the place of his destination. Or money can be brought out by means of Post Office Orders. The immigrant had better not bring cash: there may be too many temptations to spend it in gambling or otherwise during the long and tedious hours of his voyage. He had better not bring it in Bank of England notes, as discount will be charged on them for the exchange. He will, I am assured, feel the advantage of this advice when he lands at his destination, with the knowledge that, come what may, he is not destitute, but has a little deposit in the bank which will insure him and his family against many little trials which he will see his more

improvident fellow-passengers called on to undergo.

A building society was established in New Plymouth in October, 1865, under the title of "The Taranaki Land, Building, and Investment Society (Permanent)." The full value of shares was fixed at £20 each, and conditions of membership, payment of 3s. per month on each share.

Series A was paid off in June, 1872, *i.e.*, after eighty monthly payments of 3s. Therefore, £20 was received for the payment of £12, spread over that period. B and C series have also been paid off, and a series is now paid off every six months. The last series issued was series M. Ten per cent. is charged to borrowers from the Society. In all the series, A to M inclusive, 4,711 shares have been taken up since the Society commenced operations, representing, when paid off, £94,000.

## PROVINCE OF AUCKLAND.

**T**HE early history of the Province of Auckland is, in a great degree, identical with that of the Colony of New Zealand. This portion of the country was the first in which a European landed; in this the missionaries of religion began, and mainly carried on, their enterprise, the effects of which, in a social and political point of view, have been extremely important; here was the scene of that celebrated transaction called "the Treaty of Waitangi," on which the British Government ultimately based their right of sovereignty over these Islands; in this Province a British governor first resided; and the locality in which the city of Auckland now stands was chosen by the first Governor as the site for the capital of New Zealand.

### DESCRIPTION OF THE PROVINCE.

The Province of Auckland comprises within its boundaries nearly one-half of the North Island of New Zealand. Being the most northerly portion of the Colony, its climate is warmer than that of any other Province. The southern limit of the Pro-

vince is the 39th parallel of latitude (south), and its most northerly point is within a few minutes of the 34th parallel. The climate is exceedingly pleasant and salubrious, and remarkably equable, being free from extremes of heat and cold. Looking to Europe for a comparison, we should probably select Greece as possessing a climate most resembling that of Auckland. Owing to the large seaboard and the prevalence of sea breezes, the summer heat is not nearly so great as in similar latitudes on the Australian continent. The same causes account for the absence of long droughts, and for the more abundant moisture. From observations taken at the two meteorological stations in this Province, it appears that during the year 1872, rain fell at Auckland on 186 days, and at Mangonui (about 160 miles north of Auckland) on 180 days. The highest temperature in the shade registered by the thermometer at Auckland during that year was 90·4, and the minimum 34·0. After the hottest days in summer, the nights are usually so cool that a blanket cannot well be dispensed with. There is none of that oppressive closeness of atmo-

sphere which characterizes English summer nights; a refreshing breeze from the sea towards the land cools the air, and renders it exceedingly pleasant. In the winter, heavy rain falls, and occasionally there is a very slight nip of frost; but snow and ice are almost unknown. The beautiful climate of Auckland has always been one of its greatest attractions, not only to persons coming from abroad, but also to those resident in the Colony. The healthfulness of the climate is strikingly indicated by the fact that during a period of ten years the births registered in the Province exceeded the deaths by 12,112. During the month of February, 1874, the births of 107 children were registered, and only 19 deaths. The percentage of deaths to births was thus only 17·75, a very much lower average than prevails in England and other European countries. Wise and stringent precautions having been taken by the Government, small-pox has never succeeded in making a lodgment in this Colony. Serious epidemics of any kind have happily been unknown. Cases of measles and scarlet fever are also of rare occurrence. The diseases most prolific of fatal results are diarrhoea, dysentery, and diphtheria, the victims being mostly children. The chief causes of death to adults is shown by statistics to be phthisis, heart disease, and apoplexy. The climate of Auckland is specially beneficial to asthmatic patients; and the northern portions of the Province—particularly the Bay of Islands—are recommended by medical men for persons suffering from diseases of the lungs. The warm lakes and sulphur springs in the Rotorua district have become famous for the cure of rheumatism and kindred diseases. Medical statistics have been of such a satisfactory character as to lead to the suggestion that British troops, when withdrawn from tropical climates, should be stationed for some time in the Province of Auckland, in order to recruit their health, instead of being removed at once to England. It may be mentioned that there are in the Province of Auckland several settlements formed by Nova Scotians, who left that Colony in search of one free from the severe Canadian winters, and who have been remarkably successful in farming sections of the waste lands of the Province. The Government offer every possible inducement for the formation of such special settlements, by setting apart blocks of land free, and aiding the immigrants on arrival.

The following remarkable table is extracted from the well-known standard

work, "The Story of New Zealand," by Arthur S. Thomson, M.D., Surgeon-Major, 68th Regiment:—

	Infantry, United Kingdom.	Infantry, New Zealand.
Fevors ... ..	73	4
Eruptive Fevers ...	7	1
Diseases of the lungs.	171	94
Diseases of the liver...	8	3
Diseases of the sto- mach and bowels...	63	71
Diseases of the brain..	7	6
Dropsies ... ..	2	—
Rheumatic affections..	54	35
Venereal affections ...	277	30
Abscesses and ulcers..	124	84
Wounds and injuries..	58	79
Corporeal punishment	5	—
Diseases of the eyes...	48	46
Diseases of the skin...	95	7
All other diseases ...	52	45
Total ...	1,044	505

"This table is thus read:—Out of every 1,000 soldiers in the United Kingdom, 73 were annually admitted into hospital with fevers, and out of every 1,000 soldiers in New Zealand, only 4 were admitted with fevers."

#### NATURAL PRODUCTS.

The native vegetation of Auckland is, without exception, evergreen. The forests, in winter as in summer, are leafy; and grass which becomes withered during the summer months, springs up rapidly with the winter rains. Apples, pears, and other exotics, or imported trees and plants, with few exceptions, shed their leaves during the autumn and remain bare, as in England, throughout the winter season. The Auckland forests differ very much from the Australian bush, inasmuch as there is here a thick and almost impenetrable undergrowth. Chief among the plants forming this lower vegetable kingdom, are beautiful ferns, of which 130 species are found, 42 of which are unknown in any other country. The supple-jack, a strong running plant, which crosses and twines itself through the shrubs and trees, is an obstruction to locomotion through the bush. There are many very pretty flowering shrubs, and the nikau, a small species of palm, the pith of which is edible, is found nearly everywhere. Considerable areas of land around Auckland are covered with ti-tree, which on poor soil



is stunted, forming bushes of from 1 ft. to 6 ft. high; but under better conditions it grows into a tree of considerable height, and is much esteemed as firewood, and for the knees of vessels, being very hard and durable. Other lands, of medium to good quality, are thickly covered with a species of fern, the root of which is edible, and is largely used by the Maoris, who have attained to great skill in cooking it so as to render it palatable. The *Phormium tenax*, or, as it is more familiarly termed, New Zealand flax, grows in all parts of the Province, but is most prolific in moist ground. The fibre of this plant is the strongest material known, silk excepted; and its preparation has created an important industry. It is at present chiefly used for cordage, but it is gradually coming into use for the manufacture of textile fabrics. The leaves are sword-shaped, tapering gradually from the bottom, where they are thick and woody, and are largely impregnated with a white gum, of a very adhesive nature, which more or less permeates the whole leaf. This gum has been used to a very small extent for commercial purposes, and might doubtless be more largely utilized. Another product, growing profusely in swamps, is raupo, the leaves of which are tough and durable, and are largely employed for the construction of temporary bush houses. The Maoris are adepts at this work, and settlers frequently avail themselves of their skill. The raupo makes a really excellent thatch.

The majority of the cottages around Auckland have plots of garden of greater or less extent, and in some of these every variety of English flowering plant may be found. Flowers grow with remarkable luxuriance, many English greenhouse plants attaining great perfection in the open air. The horticultural shows held periodically in Auckland are such as few countries can rival.

The scenery of the Auckland Province is enchanting. Hill and valley, woodland, rough cliffs, and quiet little secluded bays; broad rivers, lakes, and rough mountain torrents; waterfalls, geysers, boiling springs, volcanic cones, beautiful natural terraces, and many other marked natural features, grouped in the most picturesque forms, and gilded with bright sunshine, tend to make New Zealand what it has frequently been called—the natural home of the poet and the artist.

The timber of the Province is one of its most valuable products, and (as will be seen by statistics given in the list of industries forming part of this paper) it has been the

source of a considerable income to the Province. In addition to the large amount of wood used for local purposes, there is an extensive export of sawn timber from Auckland to all parts of New Zealand, the neighbouring Australian Colonies, and the South Sea Islands. Chief among the timber trees—indeed, the king of the Auckland woods—is the kauri pine. These trees in some instances have been found 15 ft. in diameter and 150 ft. in height. On an average they may be estimated as yielding, when sawn into conveniently-sized boards, between 6,000 ft. and 7,000 ft. of timber, the market price of which at the mills is from 9s. 6d. to 11s. 6d. per 100 ft. The wood in some kauri trees is prettily marked or mottled, and is in great demand for cabinet making, which gives it a special value. As an illustration of this, we may instance a kauri tree cut some time ago by a settler residing about eighteen miles north of Auckland. The trunk of this tree was 40 ft. high and 37 ft. in circumference, and it yielded, when sawn, 22,000 ft. of rich mottled kauri, which was sold for £500, leaving, after deducting £200 for expenses connected with the cutting of the tree and getting it to market, a clear profit of £300. The kauri is valuable for shipbuilding as well as all general purposes, and has been classed at the Germanic Lloyd's. It furnishes excellent spars for vessels, and it is with this timber that nearly all wooden buildings in Auckland are erected. Strange to say, the tree does not grow further south than 37° 30' latitude. It is accordingly unknown in the forests of the southern part of Auckland Province, and in all other parts of the Colony. It is, however, very plentiful north of Auckland, and for about thirty miles south of that city. Second in importance to the kauri is the kahikatea (known in the Southern Provinces as the white pine). This is a soft wood, and is used in Auckland mostly for inside work, for which it is very well adapted. The rimu (sometimes called red pine) is greatly esteemed for the manufacture of furniture. It is a very good timber tree, but much more difficult to work than kauri, and in every way inferior to that timber for general purposes. The totara, another variety of pine, is highly valued for piles and similar purposes; the puriri for posts, rails, and house blocks, being remarkable for its durability. The pohutukawa, which bears large red flowers, blossoming about Christmas, is in great demand for the knees of vessels, being very hard, and having a natural bend in the trunk. The trees above named are the largest and most

valuable woods of the Auckland forests; but there are nearly 100 other varieties, many of which have special value for block-making, others for furniture, &c. It was a common practice, some years ago, for settlers to fell and burn off the timber for the purpose of improving the soil, but they now recognize it as a source of revenue, and it is customary, where practicable, to fell and square the trees and float the logs to the nearest saw-mill. The Government are also taking stringent steps to stop the wholesale destruction of valuable timber on Government lands. The forests are now properly regarded as actual wealth with which Nature has endowed the Colony.

Auckland Province, like the rest of the Colony, is destitute of native quadrupeds. The forests may be traversed without the slightest danger from wild beasts, and also from noxious reptiles, for there are none.

There was formerly a species of native dog, supposed to have been introduced by some vessel that had called at the Island long ago; there was also a native rat; but both dog and rat are extinct, the latter having been killed off by the European rat. In many parts of the bush there are wild pigs, the offspring of those introduced by Captain Cook and others; and pig-hunting may be regarded as one of the sports of the country.

The sportsman will find plenty of game. Pheasants, acclimatized, are very plentiful in the Province of Auckland. There are also native pigeons, ducks, and waterfowl. Remains of an enormous wingless bird, known as the moa, have been discovered in various parts of the Province; but the bird is now extinct, having probably been hunted down by the Natives for food. Other wingless birds, of small size, peculiar to New Zealand, are found, but have now become rare. The morepork, tui (or parson bird), koninako (or bell bird), and a number of small parrots, relieve the silence of the woods. There are, however, but few native singing birds. Starlings, rooks, sparrows, and other English birds have been introduced, and are becoming numerous. The sea teems with excellent table fish, the mullet and schnapper being especially esteemed. Eight varieties of whales, two of dolphins, three of seals, and sharks, are caught along the coast. Sharks are largely used by the Maoris for food.

#### MINERAL RESOURCES.

It is now many years since gold was first discovered at Coromandel; and to the 31st December, 1873, not less than 853,688 ounces of the precious metal had been ex-

ported from the Province of Auckland alone. There is reason for believing that the range of hills commencing at Cape Colville, and extending in a more or less connected chain across the Island, will be found auriferous in localities as yet unexplored.

The coal measures of this Province are extensive and wide spread. In several places, large seams crop out upon the surface. This is the case at the Kawakawa, Waikato, and Whangarei mines, which alone have been worked, and have already yielded a large amount of good coal. Work at the Whangarei mine has been suspended for several years, owing to the flooding of the mine, which abuts on the beach. At Kawakawa, the seam in the mine averages  $12\frac{1}{2}$  ft. in thickness, and 100,000 tons have been taken out. At Waikato, the seam being worked varies from 6 ft. to 18 ft., lying horizontally, and yields a fine coal. At Whangaroa, a thick seam of pitch coal has been found, but has never been worked. Brown coal has been found at Matakana, Drury, and Mokau. At Drury, this coal was worked nine years ago, but the mine was closed in consequence of the cost of carriage at that time. Probably when the Waikato railway is completed, the mine will be re-opened. At Waiapu, Raglan, Coromandel, Parengarenga, Awhitu, Whan, and other places, coal has been found. Very large coal deposits exist on the West shore of the Frith of Thames. An English company is about to open a mine in this locality; and the site being convenient for shipping, the success of the enterprise may be anticipated.

There are in the Province two sources from which it is believed that a large amount of iron will at some future day be obtained. The chief and best known of these is the ferruginous sand found upon and near the sea shore. The other form in which iron is found in this Province is the ordinary ironstone. A sample of stone obtained from a locality not disclosed has been tested, and has yielded a very large percentage of iron. The metal, together with pieces of the stone, was placed on view in the Auckland Museum. The Province has never been fairly prospected for ironstone, which is believed to exist in several extensive tracts of country. Limestone is abundant in many parts of the Province, as also is coal, so that these two principal elements necessary to the reduction of iron ore are readily obtainable. The iron trade is one that will be largely developed in the future, and which offers now a good field for the investment of capital.



For many years, copper mines were worked, with English capital, at the islands of Kawau and Great Barrier. The percentage of copper obtained was large, and the lodes of considerable magnitude; yet the undertakings proved unprofitable to those engaged in them, and the mines, although not by any means exhausted, were abandoned. This want of success was attributed to the dearth of labour and the want of cheap coal. In addition to the lodes of copper above mentioned, others are said to have been discovered.

Silver and lead have been obtained in moderate quantities from the gold-bearing reefs of Coromandel and the Thames, but no well-defined and distinct lode of either metal has yet been discovered. Tin, with one exception, and that on the Thames gold-field, has never been found in the Province.

Good cement has been found in the Kawakawa coal mine and other parts of the Province, and its preparation for market has been commenced at Mahurangi. Fire-clay, found in the Waikato district and other places, has been put to a more practical test. Waikato fire-clay was employed in the retorts at the Auckland glass works, and found equal to the best Stourbridge clay. Good clay for bricks exists in many parts of the Province, and brick-making is carried on extensively. Pottery clays have so far been applied only to the coarser kinds of ware, such as drain pipes, &c. Dr. Hochstetter, when in Auckland, directed attention to a series of extensive seams of clay on the Karaka Flats, beyond Drury, which he pronounced to be equal to the best Bohemian clays. These seams have not been opened up.

Petroleum has been found in various districts of the Province, and a company to test the kerosene springs of Poverty Bay has been formed, the plant for which has been obtained from America, as well as some men acquainted with the oil-workings there.

#### AREA AND EXTENT OF SETTLEMENT.

The total area of land in the Province of Auckland is computed at 16,500,000 acres, of which the portions sold from the 1st of April, 1856, to the end of 1872, were 1,675,471 acres. In March last, there remained in the hands of the Provincial Government 1,300,228 acres; but much of this is poor land, which cannot fairly be classed as suitable for settlement. The General Government retains in its possession the confiscated lands in the Waikato and Manukau districts, of which 517,000

acres are still available for settlement. There are other confiscated lands on the East Coast. The Government are now purchasing from the Maoris large blocks of land, which will materially increase the area available for occupation by immigrants.

By the agricultural statistics of 1873, it appears that there were 3,842 holdings in the Province, and 224,578 acres had been broken up; 88.36 per cent. of which had been laid down in grass, and are rapidly being individualized. From the 1st of July, 1872, to the 30th June, 1873, titles were issued by the Native Lands Court to aboriginals for 221,776 acres in this Province. The maps of claims made in the Native Lands Court up to 30th June, 1873, include 2,977,958 acres in the Auckland Province. These legal operations are preliminary to the power of selling by the Natives.

The Province is divided into counties, electoral districts, and highway districts; but a simple division, which will easily be understood on reference to a map, is that formed by the isthmus on which the city of Auckland is built. We shall, for convenience, divide the Province into two parts, namely, that lying north and that south of the capital. In pursuance of this division, we shall speak first of the north.

The Isthmus of Auckland is formed by her indentation of the Waitemata Harbour on the East Coast, and the Manukau on the West. North of the city, the Province forms a peninsula about 200 miles in length, and of an average breadth of about thirty-five miles, varying from six at the narrowest to sixty-six miles at its widest parts. This peninsula is indented on the West Coast by the Kaipara Harbour, an immense inlet of the sea, which, with the rivers flowing into it, affords water communication to about 900 miles of country, and drains about a million and a-half acres of land, much of which is of good agricultural quality. There is a bar at the entrance to this harbour, but it is navigable by vessels of the largest tonnage. A considerable proportion of the land around the Kaipara Harbour produces valuable timber; two large saw-mills are at work in the district. Various settlements have been formed along the shores of the harbour, chief of which are the Albert-land settlements, on blocks of land allotted in forty-acre grants to Nonconformist immigrants who arrived in the Province in the years 1862 and 1863. A large portion of the land so alienated from the Crown has not been settled upon, but is held by persons resident in Auckland, from whom it may be purchased at a low

price. The many settlers who have gone upon their lands are steadily improving them. The Waikua River, which is navigable by large vessels for nineteen miles from its mouth, and for boats many miles further, discharges itself into the Kaipara Harbour. The land on the banks of this river is heavily timbered, and well adapted for settlement. The Oruawhare, Otamatea, and Hotea Rivers, falling into the Kaipara, also open up much good land, suitable for the location of immigrants. North of the Kaipara, on the West Coast, is Hokianga Harbour, which also opens up a considerable area of wooded land, and is the outlet of a large timber trade. The climate is specially adapted for fruit-growing. On the East Coast of the peninsula, there are several good harbours, including the Bay of Islands, one of the finest harbours in the world, and Mangonui, also a capacious and safe harbour. These ports have been whaling stations from the earliest period in the history of the Colony, and are also the natural outlets of important agricultural districts. There are still thousands of acres in both districts suitable for settlement, much of which may be purchased cheaply from private owners. In an Auckland auction mart, during the year 1874, good land at Mangonui was knocked down at less than 2s. an acre. The Government hold 15,000 acres in that district.

The whole of the peninsula north of Auckland is more or less settled by a very scattered population, located around those parts of the coast where an outlet for produce is obtainable. There are, however, still large districts available for settlement.

The land is generally broken and of very unequal quality, many tracts being barren and unfitted for tillage, while there is much good land, and such as offers great encouragement to settlers with little capital but possessing a practical knowledge of farming. The large seaboard has given rise to a fleet of smart cutters and schooners built in the Province, which trade between the various coast settlements and Auckland. The chief pursuit of the northern settlers is the rearing of cattle. Sheep-breeding is extending; but the cultivation of cereals has hitherto been carried on only to a very limited extent.

#### *Isthmus of Auckland.*

The Isthmus of Auckland, connecting the northern peninsula with the southern part of the Province, is about twenty-five miles long. Nearly the whole of the land upon it is well cultivated and fenced. The farmers specially study the rearing of

pure-bred stock, and their flocks include some of the finest sheep in the Colony, the produce of English imported stock of first-class quality. In addition to sheep-breeding, grazing and the growth of hay engage the attention of the farmers settled within twenty miles around Auckland. The cultivation of root crops has been neglected; wheat, with the present demand, is found to be most profitable. The land along the isthmus is generally undulating, broken, however, in many places by the cones of small volcanoes long extinct.

#### *Southern part of the Province.*

Drury, a settlement on the Great South Road, twenty-two miles south of Auckland, stands at about the terminal point of the isthmus. Beyond that point the Province widens out until it attains a breadth of over 200 miles. The distance from Auckland to the extreme south-eastern limit is also about 200 miles. The centre of this great tract of country south of the capital is watered for 300 miles by the River Waikato, and its tributary the Waipa. The Waikato is the longest and most important river in the Colony. It takes its rise at the Tongariro and Ruapehu mountains—two volcanoes 7,500 ft. and 9,195 ft. high respectively, situated in the Province of Wellington. About thirty-five miles from its source, the river becomes lost in a fresh-water lake twenty-five miles long, called Taupo, within the boundaries of the Province of Auckland, and emerges on the southern side of the lake, at an elevation of 1,250 ft. above the sea level. It flows for some miles along the Kaingaroa plain, an almost level, and at present bare and uncultivated tract of land of light quality, sloping to the East Coast, and which would probably grow splendid grass. For many miles along the course of the river the country is of volcanic origin, and is all of it Native territory. The land here is very much broken, and in some parts heavily timbered. For thirty miles, the river flows across an extensive tableland, some portions of which are 2,000 ft. above the sea level, and which is comparatively unexplored. The Waikato River emerges into settled territory a few miles above Cambridge, a frontier European settlement 104 miles from Auckland. The country from that township to Ngaruawahia, where the Waikato is joined by the Waipa River, is nearly all good agricultural land, and is being rapidly brought under cultivation. In the Cambridge district alone, there are 27,000 acres laid down with grass and 12,000 acres in crop. In Te Awamutu, an adjoining frontier district, 150 miles of





fencing have been done, 15,000 acres laid down in grass, and 1,500 fat cattle are sent annually to the Auckland market.

Other Waikato districts show equally favourable results. In this part of the Province, settlement has been more successful than in any other; and that the settlers do not themselves consider their position insecure because of their occupying confiscated lands, may be inferred from the fact that land within eight or nine miles of Cambridge township (which is only a few miles from the boundary of the confiscated country) is valued at £3 per acre, and township acre allotments at £120. This land was mostly purchased from the military grantees, a few years ago, at a very trifling price; and it has more than quadrupled in value during the past four years. The Waipa River, which joins the Waikato at Ngaruawahia, is navigable as far as Alexandra, the frontier European settlement in that direction. Between the two rivers there is an extensive chain of swamps, much of which will no doubt ultimately be reclaimed by drainage. Although settlement has not extended along the Waipa so rapidly as on the Waikato River, very considerable progress has been made. The Waikato district is reached from Auckland by a good metalled road, which strikes the river where it bends westward in its course to the sea, thirty-eight miles south of Auckland. A railway is also being constructed by the Colonial Government. To the east and west of this road, before it reaches the Waikato River, settlements have been formed. Amongst those to the west, Manku, Waiuku, and Pukekohe are the most extensive. Southwest of Drury, there is a large area of land wholly unfit for cultivation, but containing, it is believed, good pottery clay, which has not been tested. Beyond this, where the land is of good quality, with a fair proportion of forest, settlement has gone on very rapidly. To the east of the Waikato River is the Thames Valley, watered by two large rivers, with tributaries. This valley contains some splendid land not as yet settled upon. Farmers in this district would obtain a good and convenient market for their produce at the gold-fields townships situated at the mouth of the rivers. The chief settlements on the East Coast of the Province south of Auckland, are Tauranga and Poverty Bay. Around Tauranga there are extensive tracts of undulating land, on which English grasses, fruits, and root crops grow luxuriantly; and there is a fair area laid down with wheat. The harbour is navigable for vessels of considerable tonnage, and is well sheltered. Poverty

Bay, like the Waikato, is associated in the minds of persons not possessing local knowledge, with the idea of Native disturbance; yet so rapid has been the advance of settlement in this district, that there are now 500 houses, 300 miles of fencing, 280,000 acres occupied by Europeans as sheep runs, 10,000 acres occupied for grazing and tillage, and 15,000 sheep. The Government owns a large quantity of land in that district available for settlement.

On the West Coast of the Province, south of Auckland city thriving settlements have been established at Raglan (which possesses a very good harbour) and at the Manukau Heads. About 1,000 pigs, 1,200 bales of prepared *Phormium*, besides wheat, oats, potatoes, &c., are sent to Auckland annually from the port of Raglan alone. Limestone and coal are found in the district, and lime-burning is carried on to a considerable extent. In the Raglan or Whaingaroa district, and the adjoining district of Karioi, many thousands of acres of good land are available for settlement.

#### *The Lake District.*

About thirty miles inland from Tauranga, and connected with that settlement by a line of coaches, is the Auckland lake district, abounding with the most wonderful natural phenomena. There are three large and many smaller lakes, the water in some of which is of a sky-blue colour. For miles the surface of the earth around Rotorua and Rotomahana Lakes is in a state of perturbation: holes and puddles filled with boiling mud abound everywhere. The great attractions of the district, however, are the geysers and magnificent terraces. These wonderful terraces are formed by a silicious deposit from the warm—in some places boiling—water that flows over them. The chief terrace, or rather series of terraces, one above the other, is 300 ft. at the base and 150 ft. high, the front being of circular form, and the whole structure grand and stately in appearance. On the lower terraces are hollows filled with the warm water flowing over, and forming natural marble baths. The water in them is of a deep blue tint, and the surface of the terraces exhibits a great variety of colours, pure white, pink, and blue predominating. This district is now much frequented by tourists, as well as by invalids suffering from rheumatism, sciatica, white swelling, &c., and it will doubtless, when better known, attract visitors from Europe. There is a large area of mable land in the district, which the Natives are willing to lease, and this is being rapidly acquired by the Government for settlement.



*The Gold Fields.*

About thirty miles eastward from Auckland, is the extensive mountainous peninsula named Coromandel. Numerous quartz veins run through the primary rocks, and it is in these that the gold is found. Mining operations were commenced in the creeks at Kapanga, where rough gold, washed out of the hills, was discovered. This deposit was of small extent. The hills were then prospected, and mining carried on with varying results, and it is still continued. During the first eleven months of 1873, 8,549 tons of stone were crushed in the Coromandel (that is, the Kapanga) district, and yielded 14,867 ounces of gold. The Thames gold-field, situated on the same peninsula, further south, was opened in August, 1867, much later than Coromandel; yet it has altogether outstripped the previously-prospected gold-field. The population in the townships and employed in mining is estimated at 10,000, and the district yields an average of 10,000 ounces of gold per month. The right to mine is procurable by any one who chooses to pay £1 per annum for that privilege. The miner's right thus procured, entitles a person to enter upon and work any unoccupied ground within the boundaries of the gold-field. There are also good openings, for persons having a practical knowledge of mining, in the tribute system, under which mining companies let portions of their properties to working miners, the payment being a percentage of the yield of gold. The richness of this field is indicated by the fact that amongst the pioneers the six owners of Hunt's claim, one of the first taken up, obtained 25,000 ounces of gold in a few days' work. The Golden Crown paid £200,000 dividends in twelve months; and the Caledonian mine subsequently yielded ten tons of gold in about the same period of time, and distributed £572,000 amongst the shareholders. Other mines have given handsome returns, although less dazzlingly rich than those mentioned. The gold-fields offer great attractions for the investment of capital and the employment of labour. At the present time labour is scarce, both at the Thames and Coromandel; and a sufficient number of practical miners cannot be obtained. The Government are taking measures to open up new areas for mining in both districts; and at Coromandel the construction of tracks, or forest paths, has been followed by remarkably successful results, areas of promising auriferous land being taken up along the line of road.

There is little doubt that the whole of the peninsula from Cape Colville to Te Aroha mountain, a distance of 120 miles, is more or less auriferous, and will afford employment to a large mining population for an indefinitely lengthened period of time.

## POPULATION AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

The population of the Province of Auckland, exclusive of aboriginals, according to the census taken in 1871, was 62,335. The present population is estimated at 66,000. The population of the city of Auckland, with suburbs, is about 21,000. Second in population is the town of Onehunga, situated on the Manukau Harbour, six miles from Auckland by road, which was shown by the census of 1871 to possess a population of 1,913 souls. Both the Manukau and Auckland Harbours are navigable for vessels of the largest tonnage; but the entrance to the Manukau is obstructed by a bar, and requires to be approached with care. When caution is used, however, the harbour may be entered with perfect safety; and it is mainly by a line of steamers trading to the Manukau that Auckland maintains communication with the Southern Provinces of the Colony. These vessels come to the wharf at Onehunga. Railway trains run regularly between the two ports. The Waitemata (or Auckland Harbour proper) is a magnificent land-locked water, branching westward from the Hauraki Gulf, and capable of affording secure anchorage to hundreds of large vessels. The city of Auckland is built on the south bank, on rising ground, and has a very picturesque appearance. A wharf, 1,600 ft. long, has been constructed opposite the centre of the town. It affords accommodation for vessels of very large tonnage, including the magnificent steamers now employed on the English mail service *via* San Francisco. A graving dock, capable of taking in large vessels, is to be soon commenced, and will greatly enhance the present excellent commercial facilities of the port. The Waitamata Harbour extends fifteen miles beyond Auckland, affording water-way to several country districts, at present very thinly settled. From one of these settlements, known as Riverhead, a line of railway has been constructed by the Government to connect the Waitamata with the waters of the Kaipara Harbour, an immense inlet of the sea on the West coast of the Province north of the city of Auckland. This railway is to be extended to Auckland. It will open up a considerable area of good agricultural land

north of Auckland, now difficult of access, and will afford communication by steamer and rail to the whole of the settlements on the Kaipara Harbour. The Waikato Railway, the construction of which is rapidly progressing, will, when completed, bring the country for eighty miles south of Auckland into direct communication with the capital. The shipping trade of Auckland is already great, and is fast increasing. During the year 1872, for which the Government statistics are complete, 170 vessels, of a gross tonnage of 54,257 tons, and carrying crews numbering 2,216 men, entered the port of Auckland from places beyond the Colony, in addition to a large number of coasting craft. There are owned and registered at the port of Auckland 43 sailing and 6 steam vessels of over 50 tons register, and 124 sailing and 14 steam vessels of under 50 tons register. The majority of these were built in the Province. From its unequalled position between two fine harbours, being also near to the gold fields, and in the centre of the provincial traffic, as well as being in a position to command the South Sea trade, Auckland gives promise of becoming a great commercial city. It now possesses many fine public buildings and private residences.

The Thames gold fields townships of Grahamstown and Shortland are well built, but there is no reliable estimate of the present population. It probably numbers 6,000. Kapanga, the township of the Coromandel gold field, possesses several excellent hotels; but the population is scattered over a number of small townships convenient to different centres of the field, and consequently no large township has been formed.

Nearly every settlement or agricultural centre of importance throughout the Province has its township site, with a few buildings erected thereon—church, school, stores, and hotels being generally earliest on the ground. There is a large number of these embryo townships north and south of Auckland, in addition to those mentioned in the foregoing portion of this paper.

## INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.

### *Timber Trade.*

Apart from gold mining, to which we have already referred, and agriculture, which we shall notice presently, the chief industry of the Province is its trade in timber. There are twenty large saw-mills and many smaller mills at work in various parts of the Province. In 1872 the quantity of

timber exported from Auckland Province to places beyond the Colony was:—Sawn, 3,623,361 ft.; laths and shingles, 360,800; logs, 1,553; palings, 700; spars, 153; not otherwise described, 238 tons, 13 cords, 634 packages. In addition to this, a larger quantity than that sent from the Colony was shipped to the Southern Provinces. The timber trade is rapidly increasing, and the returns for 1873 will doubtless show larger results. The capabilities of the Auckland saw-mills may be gathered from the fact that at the Te Kopua (Kaipara) mill, the largest in the Province, there were loaded during January, 1874, nine vessels, each carrying from 23,786 ft. to 106,682 ft. and taking in the aggregate 400,090 ft. of timber. The establishment of small mills capable of cutting from 4,000 ft. to 5,000 ft. a day is becoming of frequent occurrence, and has been found to pay even better, proportionately to the amount of capital invested, than larger mills. This is a branch of industry to which we would draw special attention. The forests, being wide spread over the Province, cannot be reached from the large mills; and there are still numerous places where small mills could be established with advantage. The large mills are generally placed in situations convenient for shipping the timber, and are kept supplied with logs by floatage down the creeks. The timber trade gives employment to numerous small vessels, and has in this way stimulated the provincial industry which we shall class second, namely—

### *Shipbuilding.*

The possession of suitable timber and other facilities has led to the development of an important shipbuilding industry in this Province. Auckland-built vessels are well known, and may be found in all the Southern colonies. From the 30th June, 1853, to the 30th June, 1869, there were built, in the Province of Auckland, 22 steam and 482 sailing vessels. During the last four years this number has been very largely added to. Repairs and alterations to vessels can be cheaply and expeditiously effected. A common practice has been to construct vessels at suitable places along the coast, in close proximity to forests, from which the necessary timber can be obtained. Auckland can show a larger fleet of small craft locally built than any other port in New Zealand or the Australian colonies. The ruling rate for the construction of vessels thoroughly staunch and faithfully built is £8 to £9 per ton, builder's measurement, for hull and spars.



*Kauri Gum.*

This is specially an Auckland product, found in no other part of the world. Over a large area of land which has been exhausted by kauri forests in past ages, and is now barren and almost unfit for cultivation, the gum that has exuded from the dead trees is found at a depth of from 2 ft. to 3 ft. This gum is an important article of commerce, being found valuable for the manufacture of varnish; and it is calculated that two thousand men have at times been employed, in various parts of the Province, digging it, there being no restriction placed upon the right to dig on Government waste lands. The great demand for labour in other directions has reduced the number of gum-diggers, but the trade still gives employment to a section of the population. Its importance may be estimated from the fact that in the last three years for which the statistics are complete—namely, 1870, 1871, and 1872—no less than 14,276½ tons of the gum were exported, the value of which amounted to £497,199. The Maoris bring a considerable quantity to market. The buying price of first-class kauri gum at Auckland, in March, 1874, was £30 to £33 per ton. At that price, gum-diggers would earn from 30s. to £4 a week, according to the nature of the field they were working on. The average earnings would, however, be about £2 a week. The work possesses attractions for many on account of its freedom, the labourer working and resting when he pleases.

*Phormium Fibre (New Zealand Flax).*

There are scattered over the Province numerous mills for the preparation of this fibre, but in consequence of the fall in price the quantity produced has lately diminished considerably; mill-owners finding that the present rate for good prepared *Phormium* (£18 to £20 per ton) will not remunerate. The chief cost in connection with flax-mills is the motive power. The machines are all locally made, simple of construction, and cheap. The plant itself grows wild in nearly all parts of the Province, and the right to cut flax upon waste lands may be purchased from the Government at a very low price. The building required for a flax-mill need not be a large or expensive erection; but it is necessary to have a good dry store-room and a press for packing the bales. The profits from flax preparation depend in a great measure upon the situation of the mill, and the cost of getting the green leaf to the mill and the prepared fibre to market. Boys and women are largely

employed in these mills. The prepared *Phormium*, suitable for rope-making, exported from the Province in the year 1873, was 1,497 tons, valued at £27,783.

*Rope Making.*

The manufacture of rope from prepared *Phormium* is now an industry of some importance in Auckland, but might be more extensive. In consequence of the opposition of English rope makers to the use of *Phormium*, or at least to paying for it a price proportionate to that given for Manila hemp, it has been found more profitable to manufacture the ropes here than to export the fibre in bales. Auckland-made rope generally meets with a ready market. The cordage from Auckland manufactories has been tested on Her Majesty's war vessels visiting the port, and has been highly commended; and similar commendations from the officers of an American and an Italian war vessel, which visited the port, have been published. It has also been put to the most trying tests in ordinary wear, and has come out satisfactorily. During a late severe gale at Auckland, it was found that the rope, when subjected to the same strain as Manila, remained unbroken, while the other gave way. This industry is worthy of the attention of practical rope makers contemplating emigration, the cheapness and plentifulness of the material being of the utmost importance, while the market in this and the neighbouring colonies is almost unlimited. During 1872, cordage to the amount of 1,057 cwt., and in value £2,406, was exported from Auckland. There was also of course a large quantity used within the Province or sent to other parts of the Colony. Samples of Auckland rope in common wear may be seen on most English vessels trading to Auckland. A cable of 12 in. in circumference and 120 fathoms long, was lately placed on board the ship *Hindostan*, to order, and should be inspected by all interested while that vessel is in London.

*Soap Boiling.*

This industry has been carried on so successfully in Auckland, that foreign soaps are shut out of the market. The local soap is sold at from £22 to £32 per ton. The dip candles consumed are also all made in the Province. In 1872, the export of soap amounted to 322 cwt. The article produced is really of very superior quality.

*Foundries.*

The foundries of Auckland are amongst

its most important industries, giving employment to about 250 hands. The engineers' shops are furnished with steam hammers, drills, planing machines, &c., and are capable of making very heavy castings. Nearly all kinds of machinery, engines and boilers for steam vessels, batteries for crushing quartz, &c., are manufactured with expedition. The capital invested in this branch of industry is very large.

*Distillery and Breweries.*

A distillery has been established at Auckland, which manufactures a large amount of spirits of all kinds and of excellent quality. The breweries are also extensive, and do a very considerable business. Breweries have been established likewise at Onehunga, Thames, Coromandel, Tauranga, and the Waikato.

*Furniture, Cabinet Making, &c.*

The woods of Auckland Province are eminently adapted for the manufacture of furniture; and, timber being cheap, substantial household furniture, such as tables, drawers, wardrobes, &c., is sold at as low a price in Auckland as in Great Britain. Fancy cabinet making also flourishes, some of the native woods being eminently adapted for that purpose. The bulk of the furniture in use in the Province is locally made.

*Coal Mining.*

This industry is one that requires developing, as there are many tracts of land known to possess deposits of coal, which are yet permitted to lie waste. Some of these have been referred to in the remarks on the mineral resources of the Province. The Kawakawa mine, at the Bay of Islands, at present gives employment to from 80 to 100 men. New workings are being opened up. The mine has yielded as much as 3,200 tons of coal in one month, and with the new workings the yield will doubtless be large. The demand is much greater than the supply. The General Assembly has voted £40,000 for the construction of a railway from the mine to deep water, in order to facilitate shipments. A coal mine at Whangarei, which was worked some years ago and was subsequently closed, has lately been re-opened. Capitalists might find a profitable field for investment in the provincial coal measures.

*Miscellaneous Industries.*

In addition to those mentioned above, the following industries have been developed

to a greater or less extent in Auckland, and generally with considerable success:— Manufacture of agricultural implements, boots, biscuits (fancy and cabin) bricks, bone-dust, baskets, bellows, bookbinding, cordials, cooperage, coffee-roasting, drain pipes and coarse pottery, coach building, fish curing, glassware, (blown and moulded only), hats, jewellery (chiefly with Colonial stones and gold), flour, ovens, printing, preserved meats, sauces, saddlery, sashes and doors (by steam machinery), sugar boiling, stone cutting, shirt making, tailoring, tanneries, tinware, venetian blinds, and other lesser industries.

*Industries likely to be Profitable.*

There are many industries not yet established, which could not fail of success if started on a proper footing. Of the larger and more important works we might mention the manufacture of paper, for which the *Phormium* fibre furnishes excellent material. The extent of the local market for the product of such a manufactory is indicated by the fact that the value of the annual import of paper exceeds £26,000.

Woollen mills have been successfully established in Nelson and Otago; and there is a good opening for one or more in Auckland. The woollens imported into the Colony in 1872 were valued at £123,283.

Discoveries of kerosine have been repeatedly made in the Province without, except in one instance, any boring operations being made in order to test their value. Yet the Colony continues to import, yearly, kerosine to the value of £45,000.

Vine growing and the manufacture of wine might be carried on with a certainty of a large profit by any one possessing practical knowledge and the necessary capital. The annual import of wine into the Colony exceeds £74,000 in value. The duty on foreign wine would be a protection to the local manufacturer. The climate is well adapted for the culture of grapes.

Tobacco of excellent quality is being grown and manufactured on a small scale eighteen miles south of Auckland, and has proved remunerative. This industry might be advantageously extended, there being a good local market, as is indicated by annual imports valued at £57,486 for tobacco, and £19,551 for cigars.

For the manufacture of 250 tons of beet sugar in the Colony, the Government have offered a bonus of £2,000; and as this root flourishes in the Province of Auckland, there is a great inducement for any capitalist to embark in the industry. The Auckland farmers express their willingness



to grow the necessary crop, if a local market for their produce be guaranteed.

The coast fisheries are capable of being largely developed. A Government bonus of 4s. per cwt. has been offered for all salt or preserved fish prepared in, and exported and sold out of, the Colony between 1st August, 1872, and 1st November, 1879. At present over £18,000 worth of preserved and £8,000 of salted fish are being imported into the Colony annually. No attempt has been made to utilize the pottery clays of the Province, although earthenware, owing to breakage, commands a high price. The imports of earthenware each year amount to over £16,126, and of china to £5,241. The climate is well adapted for the growth of hops, which are now cultivated to a small extent, but there is still £28,000 worth imported annually. We shall enumerate below a number of articles now imported for which the material might be found within the Province of Auckland, and their manufacture might, with skilful management, become thriving local industries. The figures appended represent the value of the goods of each class imported in the year 1872:—Bags and sacks (*Phormium* fibre suitable), £91,932; buckets and tubs, £1,436; brushware and brooms, £11,929; bottled fruits, £8,099; cement, £10,540; confectionery, £17,769; matches, £26,227; tobacco pipes, £7,747; twine, £6,363; vinegar, £7,042; woodware, £9,386. That many of these industries have not been commenced before is no doubt due to the numerous openings for the investment of capital in the Colony which present themselves to investors. The Government offer a bonus of £5,000 for the production of 1,000 tons of iron in the Colony.

#### THE CLASSES LIKELY TO SUCCEED IN AUCKLAND.

It must be understood that large manufactories for lace-making, stocking-making, and similar industries, which give employment to a considerable population in England, have not yet been established in Auckland, nor in any other part of the Colony. The trades requiring skilled labour are principally those enumerated in the list of industries noticed in the preceding pages. For example, twist hands, and other persons employed in lace and stocking manufactories or cotton-mills, need not go to the Colony seeking employment, unless prepared to forsake their old modes of life and to strike out new paths. If adapted to this, and industrious, no one need despair of success. There is no open-

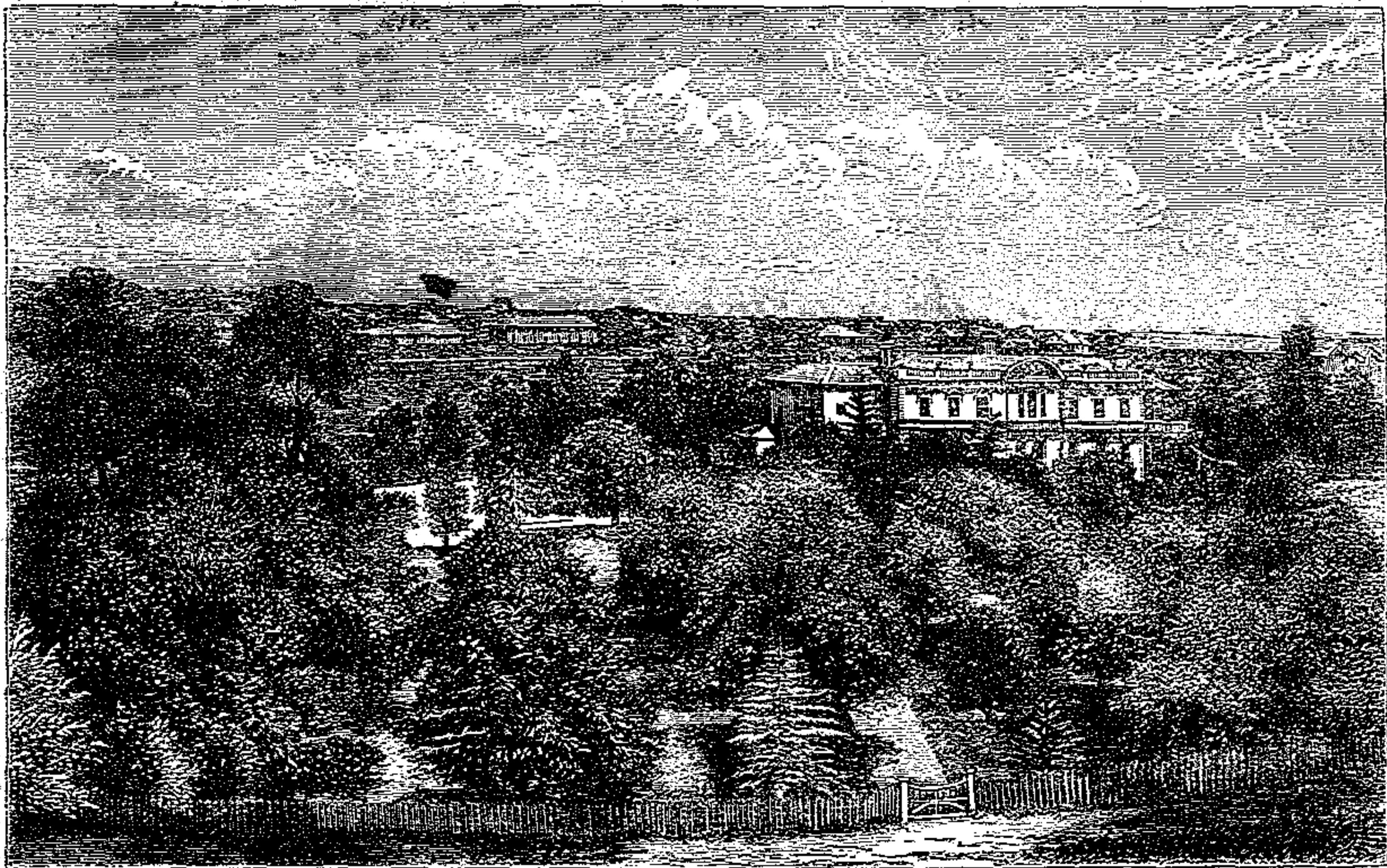
ing for additional retail shops in Auckland; but persons possessing a small or large capital, and prepared to commence manufacturing industries, cannot fail to succeed: this is the class most wanted. In consequence of the extensive public works now going on, labourers are in great demand. The great wants of the Province are practical farmers and agricultural labourers. Farm labourers may here become landed proprietors. By hiring out their services from time to time to neighbouring settlers and on public works, while bringing their own properties under cultivation, they may—as many have done before—found for themselves comfortable homesteads. The great complaint of employers of farm labour in the Province is, that the best men soon leave them to commence on their own account. Female servants cannot fail to succeed here, if honest and industrious. The immense undeveloped mineral wealth of the Province of Auckland holds out, as we have shown, almost unequalled inducements to capitalists; but persons practically acquainted with mining, even though possessing little capital, have good chances of success. Acres of ground known to contain coal, iron, or copper, have been offered for sale at very low prices. The known gold-producing districts of the Province are only very partially developed, while other districts believed to be gold-bearing are not yet opened to mining enterprise. These offer good fields for the employment of a large mining population. Another class for whose circumstances the Province has peculiar advantages, is that of persons who have small private incomes. If these only knew the cheapness of living and the comfort in the colonies, they would no longer endure the miseries of straitened circumstances. Pensioners may live better on their pay in Auckland than in England; and this class is already largely represented in the Province. Persons without means and with no particular calling will find themselves better off in an old country: they need not emigrate. The same may be said of those who hope to secure a Government situation, or have vague notions that gold may be got in the colonies without work. These had much better remain in Europe. Industry is necessary to success in every part of the colonies.

#### LAND LAWS.

##### *Special Advantages of Auckland.*

The special advantage of Auckland to farmers and others who contemplate ultimately settling to agricultural pursuits, is





GOVERNOR'S HOUSE, AUCKLAND.



the cheapness of land. Under "The Auckland Waste Lands Act, 1870," or, as it is more generally termed, "The Homestead Act," provision is made for the acquisition of land by *bond fide* occupation and cultivation. Several blocks of land have been proclaimed as open for occupation under this Act, and there is yet much land of good quality lying unproductive, which will be brought within the operation of the Act from time to time as the blocks now open become settled upon. This Province is the only one in which free grants of land are held out by the Government as an inducement to immigration and settlement. There is in Auckland a market for much more produce than the Province at present raises. The import of breadstuffs at the port of Auckland from 1st January to 31st October, 1872, amounted to 8,489 tons; oats, 126,497 bushels; barley, 21,258 bushels; bran, 14,795 bushels; maize, 85,368 bushels. Potatoes and other produce are also extensively imported.

#### *How to obtain a Free Grant of Land.*

The course prescribed by the Auckland Waste Lands Act for acquiring a farm, is simple. Any person of eighteen years of age or upwards is entitled to take possession of forty acres of land upon any of the blocks proclaimed from time to time under the Act, provided that not more than 200 acres can be held by any number of persons living in one household. Persons desirous of taking up sections must proceed to the district where land has been thrown open, and after examining the lots and making their selections, they must lodge an application with the duly authorized surveyor, known as the Resident Surveyor, who lives near the block. If no previous application has been entered, the applicant will be held to be in possession; where two applications are received simultaneously, the Resident Surveyor decides by lot, in the presence of the applicants. When a lot has been secured in the manner described, the holder must, at his own expense, get the land surveyed, and deliver to the Waste Lands Office, within six months after taking possession, a correct plan of the selection. Upon receipt of this plan, the Waste Lands Commissioner issues a certificate, and after three years' *bond fide* occupation by the individual by whom the land has been applied for, and one-fifth cultivation, a Crown grant will be issued, the occupier thus becoming sole proprietor. If the land is brought into complete cultivation, a Crown grant will be issued at any time within the three years prescribed for the

right by occupation. Provision is made in the Act for the transfer of the original occupier's right at the expiration of one year from the date of taking possession, and also for cases of death; but claims will become void—except in the event of complete cultivation—unless the land is, in each case, actually occupied for the term prescribed in the Act by the person to whom the certificate has been issued, or his substitute by transfer. Provision is made for the purchase of adjoining lands at 10s. per acre, when desired to complete a farm.

#### *Government Land Sales.*

In the remarks on the area of the Province, there has been given an estimate of the amount of land in the possession of the Government. The general country lands are usually offered by the Provincial Government for sale by auction at an upset price of 10s. per acre. Lots so offered are sold to the highest bidder; but any lots not then purchased remain open for selection for twelve months. Any person desirous of securing a section of land may, by applying to the Waste Lands Office in Auckland, ascertain what lands in any district have thus become subject to purchase at 10s. an acre. The Government are opening up roads throughout the country districts as rapidly as possible, in which process they are being aided by Highway Boards; and these works have been a great assistance to country settlers without capital, who have thus been enabled to earn money for their support, while bringing their own lands under cultivation.

#### *Improved Farms.*

Many farmers with small capital prefer, and no doubt wisely, to purchase a partially-improved farm, rather than go on to waste lands and bring virgin soil under cultivation. These may desire to know what prospect there is of purchasing or renting farms. Few persons care to go on a rented farm when they can secure a freehold at a comparatively small price. There are, however, a few rented farms in the vicinity of Auckland, which are held at varying rates. Respecting the prospect of purchasing improved farms, a better guide as to price cannot be given than that furnished by the advertising columns of an Auckland paper of 25th March, 1874. From a large number of notices of land and farms for sale, we select the following:—"Farm, 315 acres freehold, and 20,000 acres leasehold, for ten years, with 60 head of cattle, 900 sheep, 12 horses, farming implements, six-roomed house and outbuild-

ings, price £2,000; or without the sheep £1,000." "Farm of 300 acres at Waiuku, 150 acres in grass, with eight-roomed dwelling-house." "Desirable homestead and farm of 200 acres, all fenced, in Waikato district." "Farm of 60 acres at Hunui, with small house, a few acres in grass, price £60." "Farm of 30 acres, nineteen miles from Auckland, with good residence, stabling for forty horses, coach-house, barn, &c., price £460." "For sale, price £600, a comfortable homestead and 1,600 acres of good land, situated in the Gulf of the Thames, ten miles from Grahamstown. The improvements already made will give and immediate return to cover interest on the amount of the purchase money." "For sale, in one or more lots, a block of 2,800 acres, principally volcanic land, fenced and considerably improved, about thirty-five miles by rail from Auckland, with a passenger station in the centre of the property." There are other similar announcements, with offers of large estates; but those cited above are sufficient to show that farmers desirous of purchasing improved land will not be left without choice.

#### THE LABOUR MARKET.

The following list of rates of wages has been compiled from what was actually being paid in Auckland and the surrounding districts in March, 1874. It is to be observed that in all mechanical trades, and for labourers in general, the standard day's work is eight hours. Shops usually close at six p.m., except on Saturday.

**Agricultural labourers:** Very great demand, especially for men having a general knowledge of farm work. Married couples (with board), £60 to £70 per annum; general farm labourers, 15s. to 20s. per week (with board); ploughmen, 15s. to 20s. per week (with board); boys able to milk, 7s. to 10s. per week.

**Accountants and book-keepers,** from £3 to £5 per week—demand very limited.

**Bakers:** good demand. Wages for foremen, £2 per week and board, or £2. 10s. without board.

**Coach-builders:** First-class hands, 10s. per day; second-rate tradesmen, 8s. Coach-painters, similar rates. Business is brisk, and good artisans are required.

**Boot and Shoemakers:** Journeymen earn from 7s. to 8s. per day of eight hours, but men working on piece earn up to £4 per week. The trade is very well supplied at present with labour.

**Bricklayers:** Trade is very brisk. Bricklayers, 11s. per day; hodmen, 8s.

**Bushmen,** 25s. per week and board, estimated as equal to £2 per week.

**Bottlers,** and men employed about breweries and distilleries, £2 to £2. 5s. per week.

**Boys for country stores, &c.,** 8s. to 12s. per week and board.

**Blacksmiths,** 9s. to 11s. per day.

**Carters (in town),** £1 6s. to £2 5s. per week.

**Wagoners (in country),** £2 to £2. 10s. per week.

**Cabinet-makers,** 8s. per day when employed constantly in the shop.

**Cooks:** Male, 20s. to 60s. per week; female, 15s. to 20s.

**Carpenters:** Trade brisk; wages, 9s. to 10s. per day.

**Clerks:** too many offering; wages, £2 to £3 per week.

**Coal-miners (at Kawakawa):** Most of the work is let by contract. Skilled coal-cutters can earn from 10s. to 12s. per day, and are scarce. Labourers at the mine receive from 6s. to 7s.; engineer, 12s.; stoker, 9s.; carpenters, 8s. to 9s.; blacksmiths, 9s. to 10s. per day.

**Drapers' assistants:** Wages vary in different establishments from £2 to £4 per week.

**Ditchers,** 5s. 6d. per day.

**Gardeners:** landscape, 9s. per day; ditto, plain, acting as grooms, 15s. per week and board.

**Governesses,** £50 to £70 per annum; nursery, £30 to £50.

**Housemaids:** In gentlemen's families, 12s. to 15s. per week; in country hotels, 12s. to 15s.; in town hotels, 10s. to 15s.

**Engineers:** Business brisk: 250 men employed in the local workshops; wages, 8s. to 12s. per day, according to skill.

**Labourers on the roads and railways:** Demand in excess of supply. Wages 6s. to 7s. per day.

**Milliners** meet with ready employment at from 20s. to 40s.

**Needlewomen** earn from 12s. to £1 per week.

**Jewellers (working):** Trade supplied. Wages, £3 per week.

**Millers,** £2. 5s. to £3 per week. None offering.

**Painters:** The current rates are 8s. to 9s. per day.

**Printers:** Compositors, £2 to £2. 5s. per week; newspaper work, 1s. per thousand; pressmen, £2 to £2. 5s. In country offices compositors earn from £2. 5s. to £2. 10s.; stone-hands and clickers, £3 to £4. 5s.

**Polishers:** Piece-work, at the rate of about 8s. per day.



Shipwrights: Trade is very brisk, and the standard rates of wages in March, 1874, was from 10s. to 12s. per day.

Stonemasons in demand, at 12s. per day.

Storemen: In country, 30s. and board; in town, £2 to £2. 10s. per week.

Servants (female): General servants, large demand and few offering. Situations for many more. Wages, town, 8s. to 10s. per week; country, 10s. to 12s.

Tanners: Wages for tanners vary from £2 to £4 per week; curriers, on piece-work, from £2. 10s. to £4; labourers at the tanyards, 36s. to 45s. per week. Tanners and curriers readily obtain employment.

Tailors: Average earnings about £2 per week, although some steady men earn up to £4. Good cutters receive about £5; tailoresses, 20s.

Upholsterers are paid by piece-work, and average 8s. per day.

As to other trades in general, such as butchers, saddlers, plumbers, &c., it may be said generally that the wages range from £2 to £3 per week.

The common practice where rations form part payment is to board and cook for the workmen. The rations, therefore, are not weighed, but full breakfast, dinner, and tea are allowed, and fresh meat is invariably included when obtainable. At the East Coast saw-mills, salt meat and poultry frequently form the chief items of the daily fare.

#### *Wages on Gold-fields.*

The following rates rule on the Thames and Coromandel Gold-fields:—

Mine managers, £200 to £500 per annum.

Per day: Good miners, 7s. 6d. to 8s.; truckers, 7s.; blacksmiths, 10s.; carpenters, 10s.; foreman of shift, 10s.; engine-driver, 10s.; bracedmen, 8s. 4d.; amalgamator, 9s.; feeders, 6s.; labourers, 6s.

#### *COST OF LIVING.*

The cost of food in Auckland is lower than in Great Britain, and the labouring classes use a much more generous diet. House rent and clothing are, however, dearer. The cheapness of meat especially surprises the newly-arrived immigrant. The following were the retail prices of provisions in Auckland in March, 1874. Some of the articles are at times lower. Butter and eggs, for instance, are sometimes sold as low as a shilling per pound and per dozen respectively; milk 4d. and 5d. a quart; and potatoes, £3 to £4 a ton. The rates given below are taken at the dear season of the year. Bread 3½d. to 4d. per 2lb. loaf: milk, per quart, 6d.; butter (fresh), 1s. 6d.

to 1s. 9d.; cheese (new), 8d. to 1s.; eggs, per dozen, 1s. 9d.; lard, 6d.; fowls, pair, 4s. 6d. to 5s.; ducks, each, 5s. to 6s.; geese, each, 5s. to 6s.; turkeys, 5s. to 7s. 3d.; bacon, per lb., 8d. to 10d.; hams, 9d. to 1s.; salt butter, 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d.; potatoes, 6s. 6d. per cwt.; beef, per lb. 4d. to 7d.; mutton, 4d. to 5d.; pork, 6d.; veal, 6d.; flour, bakers' price, 3d. per lb.; firewood, cut, 14s. 6d. per ton, delivered.

#### *Wholesale Rates of Breadstuffs and Produce.*

Flour, millers' price, per ton, first quality, £17; fine flour, household, £14; Adelaide flour, £18; Canterbury, £12 to £14; seconds, £12; sharps, £7. 10s.; bran 1s. 6d., per bushel; wheat, Canterbury, N. Z., 5s. 3d. to 5s. 6d.; Adelaide, 7s. 6d.; Auckland, 6s. 6d. per bushel. Cabin biscuit per 100 lb. retail, 22s.; maize, 7s. 6d., good very scarce; oats, 4s. 6d. to 5s. per bushel; potatoes, £5. to £5 10s.; hay, £2 to £4. 10s. per ton; chaff, £3. 10s. per ton.

#### *ECCELESIASTICAL.*

The founder of religious missions in New Zealand was the Rev. Samuel Marsden, for many years principal chaplain of New South Wales. He first arrived in that Colony in the year 1794, and he died there in 1838. At his residence in Paramatta he was accustomed, in accordance with his noted habits of hospitality, to entertain Maori visitors—as many as thirty individuals of that nation were on some occasions observed to be guests of Mr. Marsden at one time. He formed a high estimate of the race, and was anxious for their becoming civilized and Christians. During his visit to England, in the years 1808 and 1809, he succeeded in making arrangements for the establishment of a New Zealand mission; and for that purpose, on his return to Sydney, he was accompanied by two persons who had offered themselves for that service. The massacre of the crew and passengers of the ship *Boyd*, however, in 1809, caused the commencement of operations to be postponed, the Governor of New South Wales forbidding the principal Chaplain to venture on a visit to New Zealand. This massacre occurred at Whangaroa, and was an act of revenge or retaliation, on account of the flogging of the son of a chief resident in the district, who, with some other Maoris, had undertaken to work their passages on board of *Boyd* from Sydney to New Zealand. The prohibition was removed in 1814, and Mr. Marsden then proceeded to

New Zealand for the first time, making the voyage in a brig (the *Active*) which he had purchased for missionary purposes, and having with him the first three missionaries to this country, and also some chiefs of the Bay of Islands who had been his guests at Paramatta. The expedition arrived at Rangihoua, on the north side of that bay, in December; and the first celebration of public worship, was there conducted by Mr. Marsden, on the Sunday following, which happened to be Christmas Day. Mr. Marsden visited New Zealand in all seven times. From the Bay of Islands and its neighbourhood the operations of the Church Missionary Society were gradually extended to the Thames, and to the central and southern districts of the North Island.

The favour accorded to the New Zealand mission at the outset by the neighbouring Natives was mainly due to the influence of a remarkable young man, Ruatara, the principal chief of Rangihoua, who is also noted as having introduced into New Zealand the cultivation of wheat and the making of flour and bread. Ruatara had been, in early youth, very anxious to visit England and to see King George, and for this purpose he left his native country in the year 1805, when about eighteen years of age. After various adventures, and having suffered much hardship, he arrived at the docks of London, in a vessel called the *Santa Anna*, in 1809. Here he was defrauded of the stipulated wages, prevented from being much on shore, and finally put on board the *Ann*, a ship which was leaving for Sydney. In this ship Mr. Marsden was a passenger, returning from his visit to England; and a few days after the commencement of the voyage he observed on the fore-castle a man of dark colour, who appeared to be sickly and disconsolate. This was Ruatara, who, in consequence of the attentions of Mr. Marsden and others, recovered his health, and at the termination of the voyage remained for some months at the principal chaplain's residence, where he employed himself chiefly in learning agriculture. On leaving for New Zealand, he took with him a supply of wheat. In 1814, Mr. Marsden despatched his brig, the *Active*, to the Bay of Islands, with an invitation to Ruatara to visit Paramatta again, and to bring with him some other friendly chiefs. A present highly acceptable to Ruatara was conveyed to him on this occasion, that of a hand-mill for grinding his wheat. The invitation was accepted, and among those who accompanied Ruatara was his uncle Hongi, a

chief already noted as a warrior, and afterwards a person of great celebrity. The whole party returned to New Zealand in company with Mr. Marsden, near the end of the same year (1814). The *Active* on this occasion carried also a number of horses, oxen, sheep, and poultry; and this was the first naturalization in New Zealand of any quadruped larger than the pig. Ruatara became ill during Mr. Marsden's visit, and died soon after. Like Hongi, without becoming a disciple of the new religion, he favoured the protection of missionaries, and cultivated the acquaintance of the Pakeha. While not less adventurous than Hongi, he was exempt from that fierce love of war by which his uncle was characterized.\*

The Wesleyan mission in New Zealand was founded by the Rev. Samuel Leigh, who took up his residence at Whangaroa, among the tribe Ngatipo, in the year 1823. George, the notorious chief of Ngatipo, was at that time dead; but his spirit of hostility to the whites appears, in some measure, to have survived in his tribe. The missionaries at Whangaroa were so treated that on one occasion they fled to the church missionary station at Kerikeri;† but they soon after returned.

In 1826 the mission premises at Whangaroa were finally plundered and destroyed by a portion of Hongi's forces, in his war against Ngatipo. This violence was in contravention of orders given by Hongi. The missionaries took refuge in the church missionary stations at the Bay of Islands, whence they proceeded to Sydney. After a few months' stay there they returned to New Zealand, to Hokianga, on the north-western coast, where, in 1828, they es-

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\* "He was indeed a noble specimen of human nature in its savage state. His character was cast in the mould of heroes. At the very period of his death, after ten years of as much privation, danger, and hardship as nature could well bear, his courage was unsubdued, and his patriotism and enterprise unabated. He told Mr. Marsden, with a air of triumph, 'I have now introduced the cultivation of wheat into New Zealand. New Zealand will become a great country. In two years more I shall be able to export wheat to Port Jackson in exchange for hoes, axes, spades, tea and sugar.' He had made arrangements for farming on a large scale, and had formed his plan for building a new town, with regular streets, after the European mode. . . . Had he lived, he would have been the Ulysses of his Ithaca, perhaps its Alfred."—*Life of Marsden*.

† On the west of the Bay of Islands.



established a permanent mission. The operations of the Wesleyan Missionary Society were gradually extended on the western side of the Island.

A French nobleman and ecclesiastic, Bishop de Pompallier, founded the Roman Catholic Mission in New Zealand. Accompanied by two priests, he landed at Hokianga in the year 1837. Sections of the Native tribes in the northern portion of the Island, and also in the central and other districts, accepted adhesion to the church of that accomplished and benevolent prelate.

At the time New Zealand was constituted a British Colony, the greater part of the aboriginal race professed the Christian religion, and the movement was in rapid progress. The rapidity of the change at that time may be ascribed, in a great degree, to the eagerness with which the Natives universally acquired the art of reading; while the only books printed in the Maori language were portions of the Holy Bible, and other publications pertaining to religion.

Auckland and Taranaki combined constitute at present the diocese of the Anglican Bishop of Auckland. In the Auckland Province, there are thirty-one other clergymen of this denomination, of whom seven are Maoris. The Presbytery of Auckland comprises fifteen clergymen. The Roman Catholic Bishop of Auckland presides over fifteen clergymen. The clergymen of the Wesleyan Church are fourteen. The other ministers of religion in the Province of Auckland are as follows:—Independent or Congregational, 5; Primitive Methodist, 3; Hebrew, 1; Baptist, 1. There are a few other congregations not classified as belonging to any specified denomination. The ecclesiastical endowments of any denomination are scanty, and the ministrations of religion are maintained chiefly at the expense of the several congregations.

#### EDUCATION.

In the city of Auckland there is a well-endowed institution named the Auckland College and Grammar School, which is affiliated to the New Zealand University. The income accruing from the endowments is at present about £1,100, and is increasing. In connection with the College and Grammar School there have been established ten Provincial scholarships, each of which is tenable for two years, and entitles its holder to receive £30 a year and free tuition at the Grammar School. The appointments to all the scholarships are made according to the results of public

competitive examination. These scholarships are of two kinds, "open scholarships," which are four in number, and "common school scholarships." The former are open to all competitors whatever of the male sex, and within the required limits of age. The latter are restricted to the pupils of the "common schools," that is, the schools supported by the Board of Education, by means of grants made by the Provincial Council, and certain educational endowments.

The Auckland Board of Education consists of the following members:—His Honour the Superintendent of the Province, the Provincial Executive (consisting of four members), the Speaker of the Provincial Council, four gentlemen elected annually by the Provincial Council, and three members appointed for life by the Judge of the Supreme Court in Auckland. The Board of Education has the supreme management of the Auckland College and Grammar School and of the Common Schools.

In all the Common Schools, instruction is given gratuitously to pupils of both sexes. The course of study at these schools comprises the usual requisites of a sound English education, with instruction of girls in sewing, &c. The number of these schools is at present 113; the number of teachers is 179.

The Anglican Church has a well-endowed institution located a few miles from the city, called St. John's College, in which candidates for the ministry of that Church are educated, and a general education is afforded to other students. There is also a Church of England Grammar School in Parnell, a suburb of Auckland. To each of these institutions some scholarships are attached. In the city and neighbourhood, many schools, especially for young ladies, are carried on by private enterprise.

#### CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

The Provincial Government supports wholly the Provincial Hospital, which is situated in the city of Auckland, and the Provincial Lunatic Asylum, which is within a few miles of the city. The following charitable institutions are aided by Provincial grants:—The hospital at the Thames; the hospital at Kapanga (Coromandel); the Orphan Home, Parnell, which is in connection with the Anglican Church; St. Mary's Orphanage, in connection with the Roman Catholic Church; St. Stephen's School, Anglican, occupied chiefly with children who are Maori or half-caste; Home for Neglected and Criminal Children; Ladies' Benevolent Society; Old

Men's Refuge; Old Women's Refuge; Women's Home (for restoring fallen women). The Auckland Dispensary is supported wholly by voluntary subscriptions.

#### HOUSE RENT.

Four-roomed houses in town, 6s. to 8s. a week. Five-roomed cottages, 10s. to 15s. per week, according to situation. Six rooms, 12s. to 18s. per week. Rates vary considerably, according to proximity to the business part of the city.

#### COST OF ERECTING COTTAGES.

Allotments in the suburbs of Auckland sell at from 5s. to 25s. per foot frontage, with a depth of from 60 ft. to 100 ft. The cost of erecting a substantial four-roomed weatherboard cottage, lined and papered, is about £150. In country districts, the price varies according to the facilities for felling timber. A four-roomed house, unfinished inside, may, however, be erected in most districts for £100. Many settlers in the North have raupo houses (or whares) put up for temporary accommodation, and build permanent cottages at leisure. These whares may be made tolerably comfortable, and, if kept in repair, will last for years. The Maoris will put one up for from £3 to £5.

#### PRICES OF FARM STOCK.

The following are the current prices in Auckland for ordinary farm stock, in sound condition:—

Horses: Staunch draught, £40; plough horses, £18 to £25; hacks, £7 to £25.

Cattle: working oxen, £10. 10s. each; stores, yearlings, £2; three-year-old steers, £5 to £6. 10s.

Fat cattle: 25s. to 32s. per 100 lb., according to the season.

Sheep: fat sheep, in summer, 3d. per lb.; when near shearing, 4½d. per lb.

Half-bred ewes, 1s. 1d. to 25s.

Long wools, Lincolns and Leicesters, all prices, according to quality.

#### AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS FOR A SMALL FARM.

The following is the list referred to in our advice to intending emigrants. It comprises, we believe, all the implements necessary, in the outset, on a small farm in the Province of Auckland, and shows their prices at the local ironmongers:—

	£.	s.	d.
1 light iron plough ...	6	10	0
1 set iron harrows ...	5	10	0
1 scarifier ...	4	0	0
1 set whippetrees for plough	0	12	0
1 dray cart ...	16	0	0
1 cross-cut saw ...	0	15	0
1 hand-loom ...	0	6	0
1 American axe ...	0	7	6
2 spades ...	0	11	0
1 mattock or pick ...	0	5	6
Wedges, maul rings ...	0	12	6
Seed drill ...	0	16	6
Fern hook ...	0	4	6
Scythe ...	0	5	6

Reaping and mowing machines, cheese presses, chaff machines, corn mills, horse hoes, pulpers, &c., are not required for two or three years, and can be always bought in the Colony at a slight advance on English prices. All the implements sold are made expressly for the Colonial market, and can therefore be depended on as of the right class.

#### ADVICE TO INTENDING EMIGRANTS.

A great mistake made by many emigrants, particularly those with a little money arises from the supposition that nothing can be obtained in the Colony, or, at any rate, that everything is very dear in price. Hence they expend a large portion of their capital, and burden themselves with goods which they find, to their sorrow, are absolutely useless when they reach their destination. A valuable maxim for emigrants to observe is, "Purchase nothing you can possibly do without, but bring your capital in cash." Clothing brought from England is very frequently unserviceable in this climate, and English agricultural implements are unsuited to the requirements of a bush farm. Many persons contemplating farming in the Colony bring out a number of tools, which are placed in the auction mart on arrival, and are sold for anything they will fetch, and that is usually very little. In order to show intending farmers what is required in Auckland, and their retail cost at the local ironmongers, we have given above a list compiled and priced at the rates current in Auckland hardware stores in March, 1874. With reference to route, the most simple and best is undoubtedly by sailing vessel direct. If an immigrant desires to take up land, he should at once proceed to the Provincial Waste Lands Office, and ascertain the blocks open and terms of sale. The Government Immigration Officer will assist him in any difficulty arising from want of local knowledge. We would urge upon



intending settlers not to take up land at haphazard off the map ; for however willing the Government officers may be to assist, they cannot possibly say what particular piece is good land or what bad ; and the immigrant's future success largely depends on his choice of good land. It will repay him, therefore, to visit the ground before selecting. The best rules to be followed in making selections are :— Secure a river or road frontage. Mixed bush indicates a good soil ; but where there are many kauri or puriri trees, or where kauri gum is found beneath the surface, the soil is invariably poor. Wherever fern grows to a good height, the soil is of fair quality ; but where the land is covered with low ti-tree scrub and a plant known as the native fuchsia, which bears a small yellow flower, the soil is poor. Clay soils, when worked,

and yield with but little cultivation, but are soon exhausted. Flax land is generally good, but where swampy, requires drainage and fallowing. With the exception of bush land, all soils require fallowing for a year. The customary mode of dealing with bush land is to fell the bush and remove the best for sale, if possible, letting it lie from the end of October till March of the next year, when the fallen timber is to be burned off. Wheat and grass can be sown broadcast between the stumps, as soon as the ashes are cool, without breaking up the soil or covering up the seed. It is not always that wholly bush land can be obtained ; but persons selecting should see that a portion of their selection is bush land, as it is of paramount importance to have the material for firewood, building, erecting fences, and similar works, within easy reach.



# INDEX.



Aboriginal inhabitants of Taranaki claim the land .....	Page 229	Auckland, wholesale prices of provisions, Page	259
Agent-General in London, Dr. Featherston appointed .....	185	— Raglan .....	249
Agricultural areas in the South Island.....	39	— rainfall in 1872 .....	213
— leases in Nelson, how issued .....	181	— rope-making .....	252
— Improvement Works in Otago .....	111	— settlement, extent of.....	247
— produce of Canterbury .....	73, 125	— shipbuilding .....	257
— produce of Hawke's Bay .....	220	— silver and lead.....	247
— productions of Marlborough .....	187	— soap boiling.....	252
— productions of Wellington .....	205	— temperature .....	243
Agriculture, improvement in .....	40	— Thames Gold-field, the.....	250
— in New Zealand .....	38	— the first seat of the Government.....	28
Ahauri Plains, the .....	220	— timber trade .....	251
Alluvial gold, where found .....	37	— timber trees .....	245
Amounts to the credit of depositors in Savings Banks in 1872 .....	44	— wages, rates of .....	258
Amusements in Canterbury .....	154	— wages on gold-fields ..	259
Animal productions .....	40	— Waikato River .....	248
Area of Hawke's Bay .....	220	— Waitemata Harbour.....	250
— of settlement districts in Taranaki.....	230	— West Coast.....	249
— of Wellington .....	185	Audit Office .....	87
Artesian wells in Hawke's Bay .....	220	Auriferous sand, or gold drift .....	87
Articles of produce in Wellington, chief.....	206	Balclutha, Otago .....	101
Aspiring, Mount .....	96	Banks, amount of their business in 1858 and 1873 .....	66
Assisted and free passages to Immigrants... 76		— assets and liabilities of, in 1858 and 1873 .....	67
Attack by the Natives on Napier.....	220	— their first establishment in New Zealand.....	66
AUCKLAND.....	248	Bay of Islands .....	248
— agricultural implements required .....	262	Beetroot cultivation in Canterbury.....	132
— area of province.....	247	Benefit Societies in Hawke's Bay.....	227
— Bay of Islands .....	248	Ben Nevis, Otago.....	96
— Charitable Institutions.....	261	Black coal seams .....	38
— climate of.....	244	Blind Bay, Nelson .....	177
— coal, abundance of.....	246	Blue Spur Gold-field, Otago .....	101
— coal-mining .....	253	Bluff Harbour .....	96
— copper mines .....	247	Bonus for plantations in Canterbury .....	133
— cottages, cost of erecting.....	262	Botanical Gardens, Wellington.....	187
— Drury .....	248	Boundaries of Marlborough .....	161
— ecclesiastical matters .....	259	— of Westland.....	157
— education.....	261	Brickmaking in Westland.....	160
— farm stock, prices of.....	262	Building-stones in Canterbury .....	133
— flax growing .....	252	Building Societies in Napier.....	227
— foundries .....	252	— in Nelson.....	133
— game and fish, abundance of .....	246	— in New Plymouth .....	243
— gold-fields, richness of the .....	250	— in Otago .....	112
— Government land sales... ..	257	— in Wellington .....	214
— house rent .....	262	Building Trades, rates of wages of, in Canterbury .....	136
— improved farms .....	257	Busby, Mr., appointed first Resident.....	24
— industries .....	250, 252	Bush land in Wellington, cost of clearing... 101	
— Isthmus of Auckland .....	248	Cabinet, list of Members of the .....	85
— Kaipara Harbour .....	247	Cabinet-making in Auckland .....	253
— Kapanga .....	251	Caledonian Society in Wellington .....	187
— Kauri gum .....	252	Cannibalism prevalent formerly amongst the Natives .....	22
— Kauri pine, value of the .....	215	CANTERBURY .....	121
— labour market.....	258	— agricultural produce in 1873 .....	125
— Lake District .....	249	— average yield of grain in 1872 .....	126
— land laws .....	254	— blacksmith's wages .....	136
— Manukau Heads.....	219	— bonus for plantations in .....	133
— minerals found in .....	246	— bricklayers' wages.....	136
— natural products .....	244	— building-stones .....	133
— newspapers published in .....	53	— building-trades, wages of the .....	136
— noxious reptiles, freedom from .....	246	— Church of England in .....	142
— Onehunga .....	250	— clay iron ore .....	133
— percentage of deaths to births .....	244		
— population and principal towns .....	250		



Canterbury, climate .....	Page 127	Canterbury, woollen manufactures .....	Page 132
— coal mines .....	133	Cape Kidnappers .....	218
— commencement of the Colony .....	122	Carlyle .....	234
— Commercial Companies .....	152	Cattle and sheep, their numbers in 1871 .....	69
— cottages, cost of .....	150	— their rapid increase .....	65
— design of the Colony .....	121	Cattle exported from Wellington during 1871-73 .....	197
— desire for improved dwellings .....	134	Charcoal manufacture in Taranaki .....	235
— drapery trades, wages of the .....	136	Charitable Institutions in Canterbury .....	147
— ecclesiastical matters .....	142	— in Hawke's Bay .....	224
— educational establishments .....	142	— in Nelson .....	184
— Emigration regulations .....	150	— in Wellington .....	213
— engineers' wages .....	136	Christianity, rapid spread of, among the Natives .....	28
— English song-birds and game .....	153	Church of England Missionaries in Hawke's Bay .....	219
— farm produce, value of .....	130	Churches and chapels in Wellington .....	212
— farm stock, prices of .....	141	Classes likely to succeed in Auckland .....	254
— fireclays .....	133	Clay iron ore in Canterbury .....	133
— Fitzgerald, Mr. J. E. the first Superintendent .....	122	Climate: rapid and sudden changes of weather and temperature .....	36
— founded as a Church of England settlement .....	25	— at Taranaki, equable .....	36
— grain and flour, average prices of .....	131	— at Wellington, variable .....	36
— higher education, provision for .....	145	— of Auckland .....	243
— hospitals and charitable institutions .....	147	— of Canterbury .....	127
— hours of business in .....	137	— of Nelson .....	184
— immigrants, regulations to be observed in the hiring of .....	151	— uniformity of, in Westland .....	164
— immigrants, regulations to be observed while in barracks .....	152	Clutha River .....	96
— industries .....	130	Coal in Canterbury .....	131
— iron trades, wages of the .....	136	— localities where found .....	38
— Insurance Companies .....	153	— suitable for domestic purposes .....	38
— labour regulation .....	134	Coal-mines .....	38
— labourers, advantages to .....	141	— in Canterbury .....	133
— land available .....	123	Coal-mining in Auckland .....	253
— land purchases .....	129	Collectors of Customs .....	90
— land regulations .....	127	Collingwood .....	177
— land under cultivation .....	129	Collision with the Natives in Nelson .....	176
— law and police .....	152	Colonial Legislature, power of .....	32
— leasehold land .....	130	Colonial Secretary's Office .....	86
— leather trades, wages of the .....	136	Colonial Treasurer's Department .....	87
— limestones .....	133	Colonists, arrival of the first batch of, in Nelson .....	174
— living, cost of .....	141	— in Nelson, early troubles of the .....	175
— Lunatic Asylum .....	149	Commercial Companies in Canterbury .....	152
— Lyttelton Orphanage .....	149	Commissioners, Deputy, of Stamps .....	80
— masons' wages .....	136	Commissioners of Crown Lands .....	90
— mechanics, advantages to .....	141	Comparison of the health of troops at home and in New Zealand .....	244
— mineral resources .....	133	Confiscated Lands in Wellington .....	198
— miscellaneous societies .....	153	Constabulary Department .....	90
— New Zealand University .....	148	Cook, Captain, lands in Poverty Bay in 1760 .....	13
— newspapers published in .....	53	— comes into collision with the Natives, and kills their fighting general .....	21
— no fees charged in the public schools .....	144	— Native account of the arrival of .....	21
— painter's wages .....	136	— attempts to introduce the sheep, goat, and pig .....	23
— paper-making .....	132	— plants the potato and other European vegetables .....	23
— plasterers' wages .....	136	— visits Hawke's Bay .....	218
— plumbers' wages .....	136	Copper mines in Auckland .....	247
— popular amusements .....	154	Cottages, cost of, in Canterbury .....	150
— preserved meats .....	132	— in Manchester "Special" Settlement .....	216
— public schools .....	144	— in Marlborough .....	172
— public works .....	137	— in Nelson .....	184
— quartz sands .....	133	— in Taranaki .....	240
— railways under construction .....	137	— in Wellington .....	214
— returns of the first wages which immigrants received in 1873 .....	134	— in Westland .....	164
— revenue of in 1858 and 1873 .....	122	Criminal convictions in 1858 and 1871 .....	55
— road rate .....	126	Crofton township, Wellington .....	193
— runholders' rights .....	128	Cromwell, Otago .....	102
— sericulture .....	132	Crown Lands Department .....	88
— skilled labour required .....	131	Crown Lands, average price of .....	167
— small farmers, advantages to .....	141	— in Hawke's Bay, regulations for purchase .....	224
— small farms .....	129		
— tailors' wages .....	136		
— telegraph .....	126		
— temperature .....	127		
— timber planting .....	132		
— wages, rates of .....	131		

Crown lands in Nelson, how disposed of.. Page	178	Female infanticide common with the Mao-	
— sale of, by whom regulated.....	35	ris .....	Page 22
Crown Law Office .....	86	Firedays in Canterbury.....	183
Crown Prosecutors .....	89	Fisheries, importance of the.....	40
Crown Solicitors .....	89	Fish-curing in Marlborough .....	170
Customs Department .....	89	— in Otago .....	105
Customs Revenue in 1873 .....	72	— in Wellington.....	207
Deaths, number of, in New Zealand in 1873	68	Fish, river, increasing in number .....	40
Department of Justice .....	80	Fish, sea, list of the varieties of .....	40
Depositors in Savings Banks in 1872 .....	44	Fitzgerald, Mr. J. E., first Superintendent	
Description of Province of Auckland .....	243	of Canterbury .....	122
— of Nelson .....	176	Flax and Hemp, culture of, in Otago.....	100
— of Wellington .....	185	Flax, abundant in Westland.....	159
Differences between the settlers and the Na-		— in Auckland .....	252
tives of Taranaki .....	229	— manufacture in Taranaki.....	236
Discount, rates of, in the Colony.....	67	— value of, exported in five years .....	64
Distilling and brewing in Auckland .....	253	Forest land in Hawke's Bay.....	221
Distilling in Otago .....	103	Forest trees, their valuable qualities .....	40
District Court Judges.....	88	— of Taranaki.....	236
Domestic animals in New Zealand .....	40	Formations of New Zealand .....	30
Drapery trades, rates of wages of, in Canter-		Foundation of Canterbury, the.....	122
bury .....	136	Foxton, Wellington .....	189
Drunkenness, convictions for, in 1858 and		Free grant of land, how to obtain, in Auck-	
1871 .....	56	land .....	257
Drury, Auckland.....	218	Friendly Institutions in Otago.....	118
Du Fresno, Captain, killed by the Natives..	28	Fruit, great variety of .....	40
Dunedin, the capital of Otago .....	90	Game, abundant in Auckland .....	246
— High School for Boys .....	115	— variety of.....	40
— High School for Girls .....	115	General Post Office .....	87
— population in 1874.....	100	Geological Department .....	88
— School of Art.....	116	— formations in New Zealand .....	39
— the "Athens of the South" .....	100	Geysers in Auckland .....	249
— University .....	116	Glassworks in Otago .....	105
Earnslaw Mountain .....	96	Gold, alluvial, where found .....	37
Ecclesiastical affairs in Auckland .....	259	— extraction of, from quartz .....	37
— in Canterbury.....	142	— first discovery of, in New Zealand.....	60
— in Marlborough .....	173	— found in Westland .....	157
— in Nelson.....	183	— how obtained .....	37
— in Otago .....	113	— quantity exported .....	37
— in Taranaki.....	238	— value of, exported in 1858 and 1861 ...	60
— in Wellington.....	212	— value of, exported in five years ending	
Educational establishments in Canterbury.,	142	1871 .....	64
— in Marlborough .....	172	Golden Crown Gold Mine .....	250
— in Otago .....	114	Gold-fields of Auckland.....	250
— in Taranaki.....	239	— of Marlborough .....	170
— in Wellington.....	213	— of Nelson.....	177
Education in Hawke's Bay .....	224	— not exhausted.....	37
— expenditure on, in Otago.....	117	Gold-finding, different methods of .....	102
— statistics of .....	56	— prospects of, in Marlborough.....	170
Egmont District .....	233	Government Annuities Department .....	88
Emigration, regulations of, in Canterbury...	150	Government, form of, in New Zealand .....	32
English Constitution, the basis of that of		Government land sales in Auckland .....	257
New Zealand.....	32	Government printing office .....	88
English birds in Hawke's Bay .....	227	Government schools in Wellington.....	213
— flowers in Auckland .....	245	Grain and flour, average prices in Canterbury	181
— song-birds and game in Canterbury ...	154	Grain crop, number of acres under, in 1873	68
— song-birds in Nelson.....	184	— of Canterbury in 1872 .....	123
European roots and vegetables, adaptability		— of Otago, in 1873 .....	103
of the climate to produce .....	40	Grammar School at Napier .....	227
Exports for six years, ending December,		Grasses, high feeding quality of the .....	40
1871 .....	59	Grey and Bell Districts .....	233
— from Canterbury in 1873 .....	130	Greymouth .....	157
Extent of Settlement in Auckland .....	247	Gray River .....	157
Exterminating wars among the Natives ...	228	Hamilton Mountain .....	96
Farm labourers, wages of, in Hawke's Bay.	223	HAWKE'S BAY .....	218
Farm produce, value of, in Canterbury.....	130	— agricultural productions .....	220
Farm stock, prices of, in Canterbury.....	141	— area of the Province .....	220
— in Marlborough .....	172	— artesian wells.....	220
— in Nelson.....	182	— attack by the Natives on Napier .....	220
— in Taranaki.....	238	— benefit societies.....	227
— in Wellington.....	206, 210	— Cape Kidnappers .....	218
— in Westland .....	163	— charitable institutions .....	224
Featherston, Dr., appointed Agent-General	185	— Crown Lands, regulations for purchase	224
Female domestic servants, wages of, in		— discovered by Cook in 1769.....	218
Hawke's Bay.....	223	— general description .....	220



Hawke's Bay Grammar School.....	Page 227	Industries of Marlborough .....	Page 168
— ecclesiastical affairs .....	224	— of Nelson .....	181
— education .....	224	— of Otago .....	106
— establishment of a Church of England		— of Taranaki.....	285
Mission .....	219	— of Wellington.....	206
— farm labourers, wages of .....	223	— of Wellington City .....	187
— female domestic servants, wages of ..	223	— rapid development of .....	60
— first transaction with the Natives.....	218	Inspector of Stores' Department.....	88
— forest land .....	221	Institutions of New Zealand.....	48
— industries .....	220	— of Wellington City .....	187
— land open for sale.....	224	Insurance Companies in Canterbury .....	153
— land reserves for education.....	227	Insurance, Life, Government system of ...	45
— newspapers published in .....	53	Interest on advances, rates of .....	67
— population in 1858 .....	219	Introduction of firearms among the natives	227
— population of Napier .....	220	Introduction of the telegraph .....	47
— Portland Island.....	218	Invercargill, Southland .....	101
— provisions, cost of.....	223	Iron-sand smelting in Taranaki .....	236
— purchase of the land from the Natives	219	Iron trades, rates of wages of, in Canter-	
— quarrel among the Natives .....	219	bury .....	136
— resources of the Colony .....	220	Island Bay fishery .....	207
— Scandinavian immigrants .....	221	Isthmus of Auckland .....	247
— sharp practice of the Natives.....	218	Kauri gum .....	252
— wages, rates of .....	223	Kauri pine, value of the .....	245
— wool, value of in 1873 .....	222	Kendall, Rev. Mr., appointed first resident	
Health of soldiers in the United Kingdom		magistrate.....	24
and in Auckland .....	244	Labourers, advantages to, in Otago .....	119
Healthy climate of Taranaki .....	229	— advantages to, in Wellington.....	210
Higher education in Canterbury, provisions		— wages of, in Taranaki .....	287
for .....	145	— demand for, in Marlborough .....	171
Hokitika .....	157	Labour, kind of, in demand in Wellington	208
Hop cultivation in Otago .....	106	— required in Canterbury .....	134
— in Taranaki.....	236	— required in Otago .....	107
Horowhenua District, Wellington .....	189	Labour Market in Auckland.....	258
Horses, their number in 1871 .....	69	— in Taranaki.....	237
— their rapid increase .....	65	Labourers, advantages to, in Canterbury...	141
Hospitals and charitable institutions in		Lake District of Auckland.....	249
Canterbury .....	147	Land and Building Societies in Wellington	215
— in Otago .....	118	Land available in Canterbury .....	128
— in Westland .....	163	— great desire to purchase .....	44
Hours of business in Canterbury.....	187	— for special settlement in Westland ...	158
Houses, numbers of, in the Colony.....	55	— in Wellington, conditions of sale of ...	204
House of Representatives, list of Members		— in Nelson, how leased .....	174
of.....	85	— for sale in Hawke's Bay .....	224
— power of .....	26	— money from sale of, in Nelson .....	173
— how elected.....	26	— open for sale in Otago .....	103
House-rent in Marlborough .....	172	— price of, in Westland .....	153
— in Nelson.....	184	— purchase of, in Wellington, by de-	
— in Taranaki.....	240	ferred payments .....	205
— in Wellington.....	214	— quality of, in Wellington.....	204
— in Westland .....	164	— regulations for occupation of, in Man-	
Houses, cost of, in Otago .....	119	chester Special Settlement .....	216
Hunt's Claim .....	250	— revenue derived from sales of.....	65
Immigrants, arrival of first, at Taranaki ...	228	— under cultivation in Canterbury .....	129
— arrangements for .....	216	— under cultivation in Marlborough.....	167
— care taken of them on their arrival ...	77	— under cultivation in proportion to	
— extracts of letters from, to their		population.....	65
friends at home .....	77	Land Laws of Auckland .....	254
— free grants of land to those who pay		— of Marlborough .....	166
their passage-money .....	77	Land regulations of Canterbury .....	127
— free passages to.....	76	— of Otago .....	103
— number of assisted .....	77	Land Transfer Office .....	88
— number of in twenty years .....	54	Land Transfer System, explanation of the...	50
— regulations to be observed in the		— its equitable character .....	50
hiring of, in Canterbury .....	151	Latest Statistics .....	83
Immigration Department .....	88	Lawrence, Otago .....	101
Imports in 1872 .....	59	Leasehold Land in Canterbury.....	130
— for six years ending December, 1871...	59	Leather trades, rates of wages of, in Canter-	
Improved Farms in Auckland .....	257	bury .....	136
— in Wellington, prices of .....	208	Legislative Council, how nominated .....	26
Inducements to Immigrants.....	76	— list of members of .....	85
Industrial Pursuits of Auckland .....	251	Legislature, list of Members of... ..	85
Industries in Canterbury .....	180	Letters, number of, received and dispatched	
— in Westland .....	160	by the Post Office in 1872.....	45
— likely to be profitable in Auckland...	258	Life Insurance, Government system of .....	45
— of Hawke's Bay .....	220	— its popularity .....	45

Limestone in Canterbury .....	Page 188	Member of House of Representatives, qua-	Page 82
Live Stock, prices of, in 1878 .....	71	lification of .....	101
Living, cost of, in Auckland .....	259	Milton, Otago .....	101
— in Canterbury .....	141	Mineral resources of Auckland .....	246
— in Wellington .....	211	— of Canterbury .....	131
Longwood forest .....	96	Minerals found in Otago .....	107
Lyttelton Orphanage, the .....	149	— in Westland .....	160
Mail Services to the Colony .....	46	— in Wellington .....	208
Malaura River .....	98	— in Marlborough .....	170
Males and Females, disproportion in the		— in Nelson .....	182
numbers of .....	54	Miscellaneous Societies in Canterbury .....	153
Manawatu District, Wellington .....	189	Moa, a wingless bird, remains of the, found	216
MANCHESTER "Special" Settlement .....	216	Molucca .....	177
— cottages, cost of building .....	216	Money Order System, introduction of the .....	46
— immigrants, arrangements for .....	216	Money Orders, commission on .....	47
— immigrants, the first .....	216	— issued and paid from 1862 to 1872 .....	47
— land, regulation for occupation of .....	216	Money-Order Telegrams, number sent in	
— origin of the settlement .....	216	1872-3 .....	48
— price paid for the land .....	216	— their convenience .....	49
— rapid progress of the Colony .....	217	Mount Egmont, or Taranaki .....	227
— wages, rates of .....	216	Municipal divisions of Westland .....	157
Manufactures of Wellington .....	208	Napier, Hawke's Bay .....	220
— prices of, in Otago .....	105	Native and Defence Office .....	87
Maoris, their ignorance of the mechanical		Native birds of New Zealand .....	246
arts .....	22	Native population, the .....	27
— their primitive weapons .....	22	— its rapid decrease .....	27
— probable Malay origin of .....	17, 28	Native quadrupeds, none in New Zealand .....	246
— cannibalism among .....	22	Natural phenomena of Auckland .....	249
— their brave and warlike nature .....	26	— productions of Auckland .....	244
— general description of the .....	29	NELSON .....	173
— their appreciation of European appli-		— agricultural leases, how issued .....	181
ances .....	26	— Blind Bay District .....	177
— tradition respecting their arrival at		— Building Societies .....	183
the Islands .....	27	— Charitable Institutions .....	184
— anxiety among, for an English educa-		— climate .....	184
tion for their children .....	31	— Colleges .....	183
MARLBOROUGH .....	164	— collision with the Natives .....	176
— area of .....	164	— colonists, arrival of the first batch of .....	174
— agricultural productions .....	167	— colonists, early troubles of the .....	175
— Blenheim, the capital .....	166	— cottages, cost of building .....	184
— boundaries .....	164	— Crown lands, how disposed of .....	178
— cottages, cost of building .....	172	— ecclesiastical matters .....	183
— creation of the Province of .....	165	— English song-birds .....	184
— ecclesiastical matters .....	173	— farm stock, prices of .....	182
— education .....	172	— gold-fields .....	177
— farm stock, prices .....	172	— house rent .....	184
— fish-curing .....	170	— industries .....	181
— flax industry .....	108	— lands, how they may be leased .....	178
— gold-finding, prospects of .....	170	— land, money derived from sales of,	
— house-rent .....	172	how disposed of .....	173
— industries .....	168	— Massacre Hill .....	176
— labour, demand for .....	171	— minerals .....	182
— lands, average price of Crown .....	167	— newspapers published in .....	53
— land laws .....	166	— origin of the name .....	173
— Local Government .....	165	— provisions, prices of .....	182
— minerals discovered .....	170	— temperature .....	184
— newspapers published in .....	53	— wages, rates of .....	183
— paper-making .....	170	— West Bay District .....	177
— population .....	165	New Plymouth District .....	233
— provisions, prices of .....	172	Newspapers, number received and de-	
— temperature .....	167	spatched by Post-Office in 1872 .....	45
— wages, rates of .....	171	New Zealand Company, the noble objects of	
— waste lands, how disposed of .....	166	its founders .....	24
— wool, amount exported in 1872 .....	167	— attempts colonization .....	24
Marsden, Rev. Mr. commences to preach		— sends its first expedition under Colonel	
Christianity to the Natives .....	28	Wakefield .....	24
Marsland Hill .....	234	— its ruinous controversy with the Im-	
Marton Township, Wellington .....	192	perial Government .....	25
Massacre Hill, Nelson .....	176	New Zealand, distance of, from England .....	35
Maungātua Mountain .....	96	— discovery of, by Tasman .....	17
Moanoe .....	221	— first visit to, by Captain Cook .....	17
Mean temperature in New Zealand .....	69, 72	— climate of .....	86
Meat-preserving in Marlborough .....	170	— extinct volcanoes in .....	86
Mechanics, advantages to in Canterbury .....	141	— mean annual temperature of .....	86
— wages of, in Taranaki .....	237	— becomes a station for whaling ships .....	23



New Zealand, animal and vegetable productions .....	Page 40	Political divisions of Taranaki .....	Page 233
— capability for growing food crops .....	39	Population, compared with that of Great Britain .....	55
— its soil .....	39	— increase of, in two years .....	68
New Zealand University .....	146	— in each quinquennial period from 1851 to 1871 inclusive .....	54
Ngapuhi tribe, the chief among the natives .....	29	— of Auckland .....	250
— its loyalty to the English .....	29	— of Hawke's Bay in 1858 .....	219
North Island, area of .....	35	— of Marlborough .....	165
Notes, statistical, commercial, and industrial .....	51	— of Napier .....	220
Oamaru, the bathing resort of Otago .....	90	— of New Plymouth .....	234
Officers in charge of ports .....	90	— of New Zealand in 1843 .....	54
Official Directory, the .....	85	— on March 1, 1874 .....	68
Okati district, Wellington .....	188	Port Chalmers .....	96
OTAGO, area of .....	96	— population of .....	100
— beetroot sugar-making .....	106	Portland Island .....	218
— Benevolent Institutions .....	118	Port Nicholson .....	186
— Building Societies .....	112	Postal rates .....	46
— Dunedin, the capital .....	99	Postal revenue, its increase in fifteen years .....	46
— early settlers .....	92	Postmasters, Head .....	90
— ecclesiastical matters .....	118	Post Office, number of letters and newspapers received and despatched in 1872 .....	45
— education .....	114	Post Offices, number of, in 1872 .....	46
— expenditure on education in 1872 .....	117	Post Office Savings Banks, amount of deposits in .....	45
— fertility of the soil .....	102	— increase of deposits in .....	43
— Friendly Institutions .....	118	Potatoes planted by Captain Cook .....	17, 23
— first emigrants from Great Britain .....	92	Preserved meats of Canterbury, high character of .....	132
— flax and hemp culture .....	106	— of Wellington .....	207
— founded as a Free Church of Scotland settlement .....	35	Produce, prices of, in Otago .....	104
— gold, amount exported up to 1874 .....	95	Productions of Nelson .....	181
— gold-fields in, first discovery of .....	94	Provincial Councils, how elected .....	35
— grain crop in 1873 .....	103	— their powers .....	35
— healthy climate .....	99	Provincial Governments, lists of Members of .....	91
— hospitals .....	118	Provincial Hospital, New Plymouth .....	239
— house rent .....	119	Provisions and live stock, prices of, in 1873 .....	71
— industries .....	105	Provisions, wholesale prices of, in Auckland .....	259
— labour required .....	107	— cost of, in Hawke's Bay .....	223
— labourers, advantages to .....	119	— in Marlborough .....	172
— land fitted for agriculture .....	96, 102	— in Nelson .....	182
— Lands open for sale .....	103	— in Taranaki .....	238
— Lunatic Asylum .....	118	— in Wellington .....	211
— Licences for timber-cutting .....	106	— in Westland .....	163
— minerals found .....	107	Public Schools of Canterbury .....	144
— newspapers published in .....	63	Public Trust Office .....	60
— originally intended as a Presbyterian settlement .....	92	Public Works Department .....	75
— provisions, prices of, in 1850, 1860, and 1873 .....	95	— rapid development of the Railway System, by the .....	76
— political divisions .....	99	Public Works Office .....	86
— population in March, 1849 .....	93	Public Works in Canterbury .....	137
— produce and manufactures, prices of .....	104	— in Otago .....	112
— public works .....	112	— in Wellington .....	209
— pupils in public schools in 1872 .....	117	Pupils in Otago, number of .....	117
— rations allowed to labourers .....	112	Purchase of Taranaki from the Natives .....	228
— revenue and expenditure in 1849 .....	93	Quartz reefing .....	37
— Scottish character of its scenery .....	96	Quartz sands in Canterbury .....	133
— wages, rates of, in 1850, 1860, and 1873 .....	95	Queen Charlotte's Sound .....	166
— wages, rates of, in 1874 .....	112	Queen, the, represented by the Governor .....	32
Palmerston City, Wellington .....	190	Railways in Auckland .....	250
Palmerston, Otago .....	101	— under construction in Canterbury .....	137
Paper-making in Canterbury .....	132	Rainfall, average duration of .....	87
— in Marlborough .....	170	— in 1871 .....	87
— in Otago .....	105	— in 1872 .....	69
Patent Office .....	86	— of Auckland .....	243
Pelorus Sound .....	166	Raleigh, Taranaki .....	231
Percentage of deaths to births in Auckland .....	244	Rations allowed to labourers in Otago .....	112
Petroleum .....	38	Raupo leaves .....	215
— equal in quality to that of the United States .....	38	Registrar-General's Office .....	88
Phormium tenax, or New Zealand Flax, abundance of the .....	159, 225	Registrars of the Supreme Court .....	80
Piton, Marlborough .....	166	Resident, Mr. Busby appointed first .....	24
Pig, introduced by Captain Cook .....	17, 23	Resident Magistrates .....	89
Planting of trees, Government bonus for .....	133	Resident Magistrate, Rev. Mr. Kendall appointed .....	18
Plymouth Company, formation of the, in England .....	228	Resources of Hawke's Bay .....	220

Revenue, Colonial and Provincial, for ten years .....	Page 74	Table showing the number of Savings Banks in 1872.....	Page 44
— of Canterbury in 1858 and 1873.....	122	— of population and its increase for each quinquennial period from 1851 to 1871 inclusive .....	54
— of Wellington in 1854 and 1874.....	185	— showing value of imports and exports for six years .....	63
Richmond, Nelson .....	177	— showing the Revenue collected by the Colonial Government for ten years .....	74
Riverhead, Auckland.....	250	— showing progress of Savings Banks since 1867 .....	45
Riverton, Otago .....	101	Tairāwhiti River .....	96
Roads projected in Wellington .....	203	Tailors, rates of wages of, in Canterbury ...	196
Road-rate in Canterbury .....	126	Tamati Waka Nene, chief of the Ngāpuhi..	30
Roman Catholic Church in Wellington .....	212	— his recent death.....	30
Rope-making in Auckland .....	252	— monument erected to his memory.....	30
Runholders, rights of, in Canterbury .....	128	TARANAKI.....	227
Salaries of school-teachers in Wellington ...	213	— area of the Province .....	230
Sale of Crown Lands, by whom regulated ...	85	— one of settled districts .....	230
Savings Banks, private, list of, in 1872 .....	43	— building societies .....	243
— yearly progress of, since 1867.....	45	— Carlyle.....	234
Saw-mills in Otago .....	106, 111	— charcoal burning .....	235
Scandinavian immigrants in Hawke's Bay ..	221	— cottages, cost of building .....	240
— in Wellington.....	190	— Crown lands .....	235
Scenery of Auckland .....	245	— description of the Province .....	230
— of Wellington.....	191	— ecclesiastical matters .....	238
Scottish character of the scenery, Otago ...	96	— education.....	239
Sea fish, the abundance of .....	40	— farm stock, prices of.....	238
— list of the varieties of .....	40	— fierce intertribal wars .....	228
Sericulture in Canterbury .....	132	— first settlers .....	227
Seventy-Mile Bush, the.....	221	— fish curing .....	236
Sheep exported from Wellington during 1871-1873 .....	197	— flax manufactories.....	230
Sheriffs .....	89	— fruit preserving.....	235
Shipbuilding in Auckland .....	251	— Grey and Bell District .....	233
Ship Cove, Cook's favourite rendezvous.....	14	— hop-growing .....	236
Shipping trade of Auckland.....	251	— house rent .....	240
Silkworm culture in Canterbury, success of the .....	132	— immigrants, arrival of first .....	229
Skilled labour required in Canterbury .....	131	— industries, present and possible.....	235
Small farmers, advantage to, in Canterbury	41	— iron sand, great value of the .....	234
Small Farm Settlement, Wellington .....	192	— labour market .....	237
Small farms in Canterbury .....	129	— Land and Building Societies in .....	243
Soap boiling in Auckland .....	252	— land, for what suited .....	234
Soap, strange use of, by the natives .....	228	— Marsland Hill.....	234
Soil in Auckland .....	89	— New Plymouth the capital .....	234
— in the western district .....	89	— newspapers published in .....	53
— its composition .....	89	— origin of name .....	227
South Island, area of .....	35	— Plymouth Company formed in England	228
Southland, creation of, into a Province .....	94	— political divisions .....	233
Sporting in Nelson .....	184	— provisions, cost of.....	238
Sugar made from beetroot in Otago .....	106	— Raleigh .....	234
Supreme Court Judges .....	88	— purchased from the Natives .....	228
Supreme Court, Registrars of the.....	89	— small holdings, price of .....	235
Superintendents of Provinces, list of .....	86	— soil suitable for brickmaking .....	233
Stage coaches in Wellington .....	187	— Stony River .....	233
Stamp Office .....	87	— sugar from beetroot .....	236
Stamps, Deputy Commissioners of.....	89	— survey of, commenced .....	228
Stewart Island .....	85	— timber, abundance of valuable .....	236
Table of the area of Geological Formations	89	— tobacco growing .....	235
— of imports and exports, and revenue for 1846 and 1872.....	59	— troubles of the early settlers .....	229
— showing the assets and liabilities of the banks in New Zealand, in 1858 and 1873 .....	67	— visited by Colonel Wakefield .....	228
— showing the average prices of provisions in 1873 .....	71	— visited by Tasman in 1642 .....	228
— showing the average rates of wages in the several provinces in 1873 .....	72	— wages, rates of .....	237
— showing the criminal convictions and convictions for drunkenness in 1853 and 1871 .....	56	— whaling party lands .....	223
— showing the Customs Revenue at each of the several ports of New Zealand, in 1873 .....	72	Tasman visits the North Island in 1642, and names it New Zealand .....	13
— showing the mean temperature in the shade, and total rainfall in 1872 .....	69	— he loses a boat's crew in Massaro Bay	13
— Money Orders issued and paid, from 1862 to 1872 .....	47	Telegraph Department .....	87
— showing number of inter-provincial letters sent in 1872 .....	48	Telegraph, its introduction .....	47
		Telegrams, charges for .....	49
		— number of, transmitted in 1872-3.....	48
		Temperature, mean annual, of New Zealand, compared with London, Edinburgh, and New York.....	36
		— of corresponding months in New Zealand and England .....	36



Temperature, rapid changes of.....	Page 88	Wellington, lands, conditions of sale of..	Page 204
— extremes of, do not vary greatly .....	26	— Manawatu District .....	189
— of Auckland .....	248	— manufactures .....	208
— of Canterbury.....	127	— Marton township .....	192
— of Marlborough .....	167	— minerals found .....	208
— of Nelson.....	184	— newspapers published in .....	63
Thames gold-fields .....	251	— Okati District.....	188
Thames mines, the .....	37	— Palmerston City.....	190
Timber-cutting, licence for, in Otago.....	106	— Port Nicholson, capabilities of .....	186
— planting in Canterbury .....	132	— preserved meats .....	207
— trees of Auckland.....	245	— provisions, retail prices of .....	211
— trade of Auckland .....	251	— public works in progress .....	209
Titirua Mountain .....	98	— public works likely to be commenced .....	209
Tobacco growing in Taranaki .....	235	— revenue in 1854 and in 1874 .....	185
Tory Channel .....	165	— roads projected .....	203
Town Councils, powers of .....	27, 35	— salaries of school teachers .....	213
Treachery of the natives to some ship- wrecked sailors .....	228	— Scandinavian settlers.....	190
Volcanic character of Taranaki .....	230	— sheep exported during 1871 and 1873. .	197
— mountains .....	36	— Small Farm Settlement .....	192
Volcanoes in Auckland .....	248	— stage coaches .....	187
Voter, qualification of .....	32	— wages, rates of .....	208
Wages in 1873 .....	70	— Wanganui Bridge .....	194
— in gold-fields of Auckland .....	259	— Wellington City, description of.....	186
— rates of, in Auckland .....	258	— West coast, description of the roads through the .....	187
— in Canterbury.....	134	— wool, amount exported in 1873 .....	197
— in Hawke's Bay .....	223	WESTLAND.....	157
— in Manchester "Special" Settlement .....	216	— area of .....	158
— in Marlborough .....	171	— brickmaking in .....	160
— in Nelson.....	183	— climate, uniformity of .....	164
— in Otago .....	112	— conditions of holding land on lease ..	159
— in Wellington.....	208	— cottages, cost of building... ..	164
— in Westland .....	160	— ecclesiastical matters .....	163
Waikato River.....	248	— educational resources .....	163
Waitemata Harbour .....	217	— farm stock, prices of.....	163
Wakefield system, adoption of the.....	18, 24	— fish, abundance of.....	159
Wanganui Bridge, Wellington.....	194	— flax, climate suitable for .....	159
Waste lands, how disposed of in Marl- borough. ....	166	— geographical boundaries .....	157
Water, fresh, abundant in Hawke's Bay ...	220	— gold discovered in 1864 .....	157
WELLINGTON.....	185	— gold-mining.....	159
— agricultural productions .....	205	— Hokitika, the capital .....	157
— area of the province .....	185	— hospitals, and charitable institutions... ..	163
— articles of production, chief.....	206	— house rent .....	164
— Benevolent Institution.....	213	— industries.....	160
— building societies .....	214	— land set apart for special settlements .....	158
— bush land, cost of clearing .....	191	— minerals .....	160
— cattle exported during 1871 and 1873 .....	197	— municipal divisions .....	157
— charitable institutions .....	213	— newspapers published in .....	59
— churches and chapels.....	212	— price of land .....	160
— confiscated lands, the .....	198	— productions of the Province.....	159
— cost of living .....	211	— provisions, prices of .....	163
— cottages, cost of erecting.....	214	— timber, licence to cut .....	160
— created an independent colony in 1841 .....	185	— wages, rates of .....	160
— Crofton, a testotal township .....	198	Wesleyan churches in Wellington .....	212
— divided into two provinces in 1848.....	185	West Bay, Nelson .....	177
— education.....	213	West coast of New Zealand, great natural beauty of .....	18
— farm stock, prices of.....	206, 210	West coast, Wellington, description of the roads through the .....	187
— fish curing .....	207	* Whale fishing in Otago .....	105
— Horowhenua District .....	189	Wheat crop of 1873, value of .....	69
— house rent .....	214	White pine of Auckland .....	245
— improved farms, prices of .....	206	Woolen manufacture in Canterbury .....	132
— industries .....	206	Wool exported from Marlborough, in 1872. .	167
— institutions .....	187	— from Wellington in 1873 .....	197
— labourers, advantages to .....	210	— value of, exported in five years.....	64
— labour, kind of, in demand .....	208	— value of, exported in 1853 and 1872 ..	60
— land and building societies .....	215	— value of, in Hawke's Bay .....	223
— land, purchase of, by deferred pay- ments .....	205	Working hours in Taranaki .....	240

THE END.

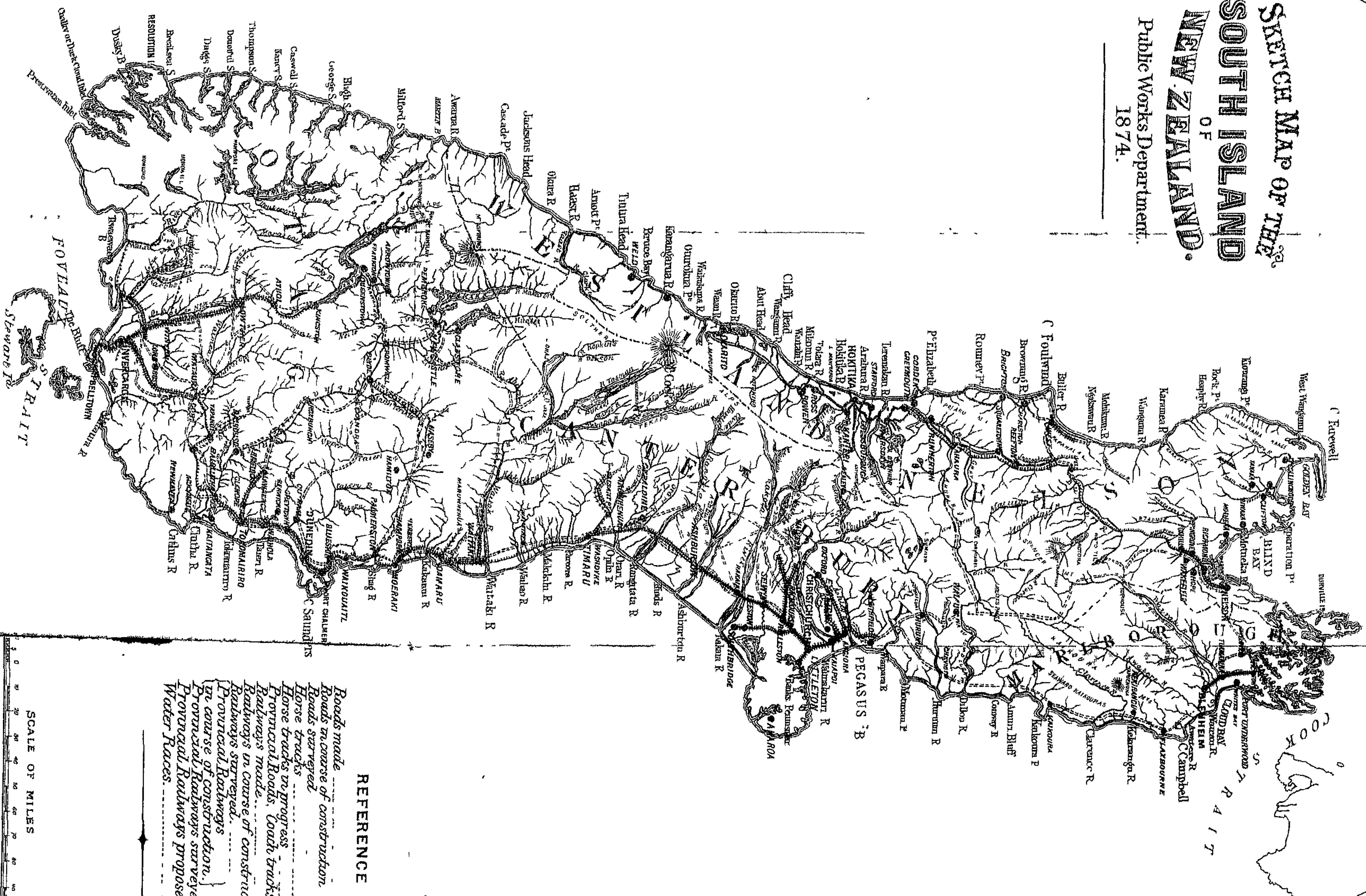


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- Roads made  
 Roads in course of construction  
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 Horse tracks  
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 Provincial Roads, Coach Tracks &c.  
 Railways made  
 Railways in course of construction  
 Railways surveyed  
 Provincial Railways  
 Provincial Railways in course of construction  
 Provincial Railways surveyed  
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